

Future-referring expressions in English and Norwegian

*A contrastive study based on the English-
Norwegian Parallel Corpus*

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Abstract

This study investigates the meaning of the future-referring expressions in English and Norwegian from a contrastive point of view. Since neither of these languages have systematical grammatical contrasts for referring to future events, this is realised by a number of grammatically different constructions. The unifying characteristic of these expressions is that their meanings, based on a consideration of the epistemological characteristics of future events, can be analysed as belonging to either intrinsic or extrinsic modality, expressing either ‘prediction’ or ‘volition’ – or both. By studying the correspondences for some of the most common expressions of future time in each language, and checking their frequencies in fictional v. non-fictional texts, several conclusions are drawn regarding the internal structure of the two languages: In Norwegian the choice between *vil*, *skal* and *kommer til å* represents significant semantic contrasts between ‘volition’/‘prediction’ and, regarding ‘volition’, between ‘desire’/‘intention’. In English, however, all the expressions included were found to express both prediction and intention. Rather than semantic contrast, the paradigmatic relations between them seem to involve differences in the level of formality. In particular, *shall* is marked as formal while *‘ll* and BE+*going to* are associated with informal, colloquial language. However, the Norwegian correspondences of the English expressions reveal that there also are nuances in meaning between them.

Regarding the interlingual equivalence between the expressions, a calculation of mutual correspondence reveals that the level of correspondence between the expressions is generally low, ranging from 1% to 31%. At the same time, all expressions are found to correspond with all the included expressions from the other language, meaning that is a high overlap in meaning. Moreover, the results prove that there is no correlation between mutual correspondence and etymological or phonological similarities. For example, the expression pair *shall-skal* has a relatively low mutual correspondence compared to e.g. while BE+*going to-skal*. Instead, the determining factor for translation equivalence seems to be the status that the various expressions have within their respective language in terms of meaning, syntax and level of formality.

Based unidirectional correspondence and a comparison of frequency between original texts and translations, there seems to be an example of interference between BE+*going to* and *kommer til å*, producing a relative over-use of *kommer til å* in translated texts compared to originals.

Introduction

The aim of this study is reveal systematic correlations between future-referring verb expressions in English and Norwegian. Together with findings in the descriptive linguistic literature on both languages, these correlations will be used further as a basis both for discussing interlingual equivalence between expressions and as a method for highlighting the internal structure in each language. Although semantic contrast and equivalence will be the main focus, syntactic and stylistic considerations will also dealt with where this is relevant.

Because of the fuzzy boundaries between future meaning, modality and tense, a central task in the first chapters will be to formulate a definition of ‘future meaning’, and to present the most common future-referring expressions in both languages

Due to the lexical proximity between English and Norwegian, there are many forms that share the same etymological origins and also are phonologically similar. An important question will therefore be whether epistemological and phonological similarities correlates with semantic equivalence as indicated by the mutual correspondence between expressions; and, if not, what other factors can be used to account for translation equivalence between future-referring expressions.

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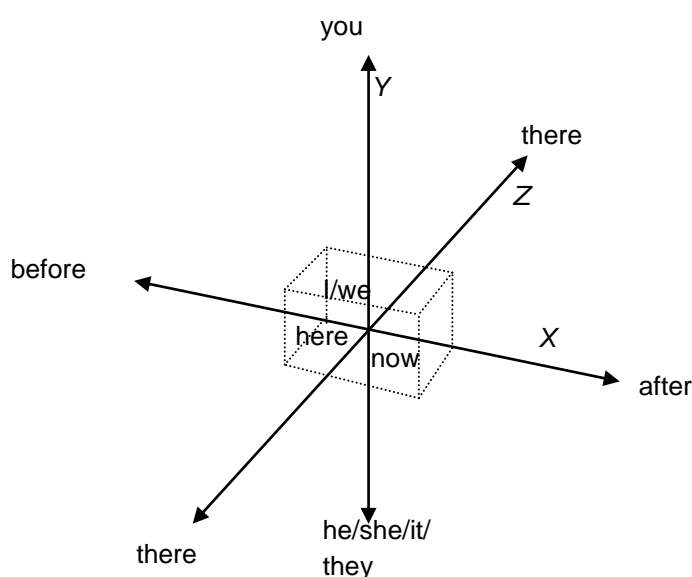
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1.0 Future meaning and future reference

1.1 Time-reference as a deictic category

Space and time is often held to be the fundamental dimensions of human experience, and although there are e.g. different versions of the concept of time, space and time are found to be fundamental in all languages (Vannebo 1979:9). And as all language utterances are made at a particular time and at a particular place, the particular spacio-temporal situation is often used by speakers as an orientation-point from which referents in the world are picked out. An utterance will therefore typically both include localization of the referent relative to the place of utterance, e.g. 'here' v. 'there', and localization relative to the time of utterance, e.g. 'now' v. 'then'. Additionally, the persons involved in the communication will be identified, using personal pronouns like 'I', 'you' and 'they'. As an illustration, we may imagine that the spacio-temporal situation in which an utterance is made forms the origin in a three-dimensional Cartesian coordinate system involving the localization of place, time and person:

Figure 1. The deictic dimensions



(Based on Vannebo 1979:2)

The features of language handling this orientation, giving spacio-temporal 'coordinates' for referents relative to the time and place of utterance, are included in the term 'deixis' (Lyons 1968:275). Deictic expressions, then, can be defined as 'linguistic expressions which refers directly to the personal, temporal, or locational characteristics of the situation it occurs in, in order to identify a referent' (Plag et al. 2007:227). Moreover, as Saeed (2003:182) argues,

‘the deictic devices in a language commit a speaker to set up a frame of reference around herself ... Every language carries an implicit division of the space around the current speaker, a division of time relative to the act of speaking, and, via pronouns, a shorthand naming system for the participants involved in the talk’

As figure 1 illustrates, the typical situation of utterance is egocentric. How this is handled by speakers during a conversation is explained by Lyons (1968:275):

‘as the role of speaker is transferred from one participant to another in a conversation, so the ‘centre’ of the deictic system switches (*I* being used by each speaker to refer to himself, *you* being used to refer to the hearer). The speaker is always at the centre, as it were, of the situation of utterance’

This can also be transferred to include time-deixis: as the origin moves along the x-axis in fig.1. proportional with time, events localized in the future will sooner or later move into the deictic centre and become part of the present.

‘Deixis’ is sometimes also used for other kinds of ‘pointing’ within context, e.g. reference to what has been said or will be said within an ongoing discourse, usually called ‘discourse-deixis’ (Vannebo 1979:1).

Time deixis, which is illustrated by the X-axis in fig.1, can be divided into three basic time-relations relative to the time of utterance, t_u : Past, which is time prior to t_u , present, which is simultaneously with t_u , and future, which is time after t_u (Vannebo 1979:1).

1.2 Time-deixis v. tense

In languages like English and Norwegian, time deixis is closely related to the grammatical category *tense*: ‘the essential characteristic of the category tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of utterance (the time of utterance being “now”)’ (Lyons 1968:305). This does not imply, however, that the two are equivalent terms; tense has to do with time-relations only ‘in so far as these are expressed by systematic grammatical contrasts’ (Lyons 1968:304) Or, in the words of Pinker (2007, p.192): tense is the way in which time-relations are ‘echoed’ in grammar. The dangers of confusing the two are described by Jespersen (1970:2):

‘It is important to keep the two concepts time and tense strictly apart. The former is common to all mankind and is independent of language; the latter varies from language to language and is the linguistic expression of time-relations, so far as these are indicated in verb forms; but in English as well as in many other languages such forms serve not only for time-relations, but also for other purposes, and very often they are inextricably confused with marks for person, mood etc.’ (Jespersen 1970, p. 2)

In traditional grammar, which arose from the analysis of the classical languages Greek and Latin, three grammatical contrasts related to time-relations were recognised: ‘past’, ‘present’ and ‘future’ (Lyons 1968:304). Following this classification, traditional grammars of English have included a ‘future tense’, realised by the constructions *will/shall* + infinitive. Similarly, *vil/skal*+infinitive has been named ‘1st futurum’ in Norwegian. There are, however, several problems with this classification: Firstly, the present and the preterite are realised by overt inflection, either by affixion or alternation, while ‘futurum’ is realised by analytic forms consisting of an auxiliary verb and a main verb. From a syntactic point of view, the analytic forms also deviate from the inflectional forms of in that they allow the auxiliary to be separated from the main verb by an intervening word (Vinje 1978:51):

- (1) I will be there
I will definitely be there

Secondly, as Lyons (1968:306) argues, the modal auxiliaries *will* and *shall* are not necessarily used for referring to the future, and they frequently occur in sentences without future meaning (Lyons 1968:306). Thirdly, as we shall see, they represent only one of many choices available for future reference. Thus, expressions of future time do not represent a ‘systematic grammatical contrast’ to expressions of past and present time.

For these reasons, I will adopt the view of Biber et al. (1999:453) that ‘from a structural point of view, English verbs are inflected for only two tenses: present and past.’ Rather than a division of time into ‘past’, ‘present’ and ‘future’, the tense system in English therefore seems to reflect a contrast between ‘past’ v ‘non-past’ (Lyons 1968:306). The same view is held with regard to the Norwegian tense-system by Vinje (1978:6), who distinguishes between tense-forms and periphrastic forms expressing time-relations.

The problem with doing away with the category ‘future tense’, however, is what we are left with. Clearly, competent language users in English and Norwegian have no problem localizing an event in the future relative to the time of utterance. But if future-referring expressions have no unifying formal characteristics, how do people recognise with ease that

an utterance points to the future rather than e.g. the present? In the following I will take a closer look at the epistemological aspects of future events in order to explore the nature of ‘future meaning’, and how this is expressed in English and Norwegian

1.3 The epistemology of futurity

As helpful as fig.1 may be as a representation of the fundamental dimensions of human experience as reflected in language, the way it illustrates time-relations relative to the time of utterance seems to be over-simplified; the X-axis portrays time as symmetrical, in the sense that ‘time before’ and ‘time after’ is essentially the same, apart from their ‘direction’ with respect to the time of utterance. In reality, however, we have seen that the deictic devices used for referring to the past are grammatically different from those used for referring to the future in both English and Norwegian.

But one might also argue that the time-dimension also is ‘asymmetrical’ from an epistemological point of view: Within the field of philosophical semantics, it has been claimed that our knowledge about the future is of a different nature than our knowledge about the past; while our knowledge about the past and the present is relatively certain, our knowledge about the future is usually uncertain (Vannebo 1970:247). This can be illustrated by using terminology from propositional logic: A proposition about a situation in the past, like ‘I was in Berlin in last weekend’ can be either true or false. That is, its ‘truth value’ is either ‘true’ or ‘false’ (Saeed 2003:89). If we take the same sentence and turn it into a statement about events in the future, we could say e.g. ‘I’ll be in Berlin next weekend’. But at the time this proposition is uttered, it can neither be ‘true’ or ‘false’. If this was the case, the conclusion would have to be that the future is predestined (Vannebo 1979:248). There are, of course, people who would maintain such a world-view, but as we shall see the linguistic devices available for future reference does not seem to be consistent with fatalism. Rather, in English and Norwegian the future is often treated in the same way as hypothetical situations. Thus, a possible explanation of the difficulty of assessing propositions about the future in terms of truth-value is that according to our intuitive conception of time future events simply do not exist. Thus, the proposition ‘I’ll be in Berlin next weekend’ can be true or false no more than the proposition ‘Unicorns can live to 80 years of age’. Because both future events and unicorns are non-existing, propositions about them are neither true nor false. Secondly, the future is unpredictable. The common, general conception of futurity seems to be summed up accurately by Næs (1979:275) when he describes future events as ‘possible’ rather than ‘certain’. Although we can make predictions, or make plans regarding our own actions, we

are never able to control all possible variables influencing event in the course of events. Consequently, ‘... statements made about future occurrences are necessarily based upon the speaker’s beliefs, predictions or intensions, rather than his knowledge of “fact”’ (Lyons 1968:310). This is so even in languages where future time is realised inflectionally (Lyons 1968:306).

In linguistics, attitudes such as ‘belief’ and ‘intention’ are included in the semantic category ‘modality’. A central question is therefore what linguistic devices are used for expressing modality in English and Norwegian, and what their role is in expressing future time.

1.4 Modality

Modality is ‘a cover term for devices which allow speakers to express varying degrees of commitment to, or belief in, a proposition (Saeed 2003:135). The most relevant devices in relation to future reference are modal auxiliaries and semi-modals, but modality can also be expressed by embedding a sentence under a higher clause with an adjective or adverb of modality (Saeed 2003:135),

- (2) I didn't look back, but I became **certain** that he was following me.(ENPC:BO1)
Jeg så meg ikke tilbake, men var **sikker** på at han fulgte etter. (ENPC:BO1T)

or by using a verb which describes the extent of the speaker’s belief, also called the propositional attitude of the speaker (Saeed 2003:135):

- (3) I **doubt** that Rose and Pete actually intended to stay long on this farm — they were more ambitious than that.(ENPC:JSM1)
Jeg **tror i grunnen ikke** at Rose og Pete hadde tenkt å bli lenge her på gården — de hadde større ambisjoner enn som så. (JSM1T)

When distinctions of modality are marked by verb endings which form distinct conjugations, such distinctions are traditionally called ‘mood’ (Saeed 2003:139)

Biber et al.(1999:453) lists the following modals and semi-modals in English: *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *should*, *(had) better*, *have (got) to*, *need to*, *ought to*, *be supposed to*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, and *be going to*. Each of these can express two distinct meanings, usually called their ‘epistemic’ and ‘deontic’ meaning. Generally, epistemic modality has to do with degrees of knowledge, while deontic modality mark the speaker’s attitude to social factors of

obligation, responsibility and permission (Saeed 2003:136) Another way of describing this difference is in terms of ‘intrinsic’ and ‘extrinsic’ meaning:

Each modal can have two different types of meaning, which can be labeled intrinsic and extrinsic (also referred to as ‘deontic’ and ‘epistemic’ meanings). Intrinsic modality refers to actions and events that humans (or other agents) directly control: meanings relating to permission, obligation, or volition (or intention). Extrinsic modality refers to the logical status of events or states, usually relating to assessments of likelihood: possibility, necessity, or prediction. (Biber et al. 1999:483)

As an illustration, consider the following two sentences including the modal *may*:

- (4) Time may not be as linear as we suppose.(ENPC: FW1)
- (5) "May I come in?" (ENPC: ST1)

In the first sentence, which is an instance of extrinsic modality, the meaning of *may* is ‘possibility’, and the sentence can be paraphrased ‘it is possible that time is not as linear as we suppose’. In the second sentence, which is an example of intrinsic modality, the meaning of *may* is ‘permission’, approximately ‘Do I have your permission to come in?’. In relation to Saeed’s definition of epistemic and deontic modality above, we see that the first sentence is a matter of ‘degree of knowledge’, while the latter involves ‘social factors’. Moreover, in the words of Biber et al., the first sentence refers to ‘the logical status of events or states’, while the second sentence involves ‘actions and events that agents directly control’ - in this case stopping or allowing the speaker’s entrance.

The fact that the same words are used to express extrinsic and intrinsic modality has led semanticists to asking what these complementary meanings have in common. Saeed reports that one suggestion, building on ideas from possible world semantics, has been that modality allows for comparison between the real world and hypothetical versions of it (Saeed 2003:137). According to this view, the function of extrinsic modality is ‘to set up hypothetical situations and express different strengths of prediction of their match with the real world’, while intrinsic modality ‘proposes a match between an ideal moral or legal situation and the real world of behaviour’ (Saeed 2003:137).

The modal auxiliaries, with their Janus-like character, do not only seem to reflect the ways in which we compare hypothetical or ideal worlds with our own, but also the way we relate the future to the present. Here as well, two possibilities are available. Firstly, as we have already seen, the uncertainty surrounding future events means that the speakers must

qualify their statements about the future by basing them on beliefs or predictions rather than facts. Thus, extrinsic meanings such as ‘possibility’, ‘necessity’, ‘ability’ and ‘prediction’ are useful. Secondly, future events are, to greater or lesser extent, controlled by choices made by human agents. Therefore, a statement about our own will or the will of others is by implication a statement about future events. Therefore, intrinsic meanings such as ‘obligation’, ‘permission’ and ‘volition’ are useful for expressing how future events are controlled by human agents.

Many writers have, agreeing that there is no ‘future tense’ in English, maintained a sharp distinction between future meaning and modality. One example is Leech (1987), arguing that... But as Leech concedes this is not an easy distinction to make, as there is an element of modality in all statements about the future. Admittedly, there are events in the future which are absolutely predictable, such as the information in a calendar (June follows May). But in reference to future events this degree of certainty is rare, and can therefore be seen as a modal attitude of ‘certainty’ towards the proposition.

1.5 Approaching a definition of ‘future reference’

At first glance, it seems reasonable to make a distinction between future reference and modality, viewing the former as a counterpart to ‘past meaning’ as expressed by the preterite and the present perfect. I will maintain such a distinction here, but rather view modality as the fundamental element of future reference. In describing the semantic meanings of future-referring expressions, I will therefore use the terminology from modality.

As Thomson (2004:69) points out, expressions of modality exist on a scale ranging from high to low commitment. In terms of volition, this means a cline from strong to weak, so that in the ‘weak’ end there is mere ‘willingness’, and on the ‘strong’ end ‘insistence’ (Leech 1987:84). In judgements of probability, this means a cline from high to low, from ‘future as fact’ or ‘pure future’ to mere possibility, e.g. as expressed by the modal auxiliary *can*. As we shall see, a unifying characteristic in expressions that are traditionally called ‘future-referring’ is that they express ‘prediction’, which implies a high degree of probability.

With regard to volition, it seems necessary to distinguish between “wish” and “intention”. In doing this, we can lend some insight by from the field of legal philosophy, where this distinction is very important (although usually in hindsight):

A *belief* “that the desired object is attainable through acts of our own” and “that we shall do acts thereafter for the purpose of attaining it” are necessary constituents of the complex notion which is styled “a present intention to do a future act.” ... Intention supposes that the object is attainable through conduct of our own. Or (as is commonly said) that the attainment of the object depends on our will. And though I believe that the object be attainable through acts of my own, I *simply desire* or *barely wish* the object, unless I *presently* believe that I shall do acts *hereafter* for the purpose of attaining it. Morris (1961:182)

In other words, a desire or a wish to act in a certain way does not imply an intention of doing so. For example, we may desire an object and believe that it is attainable through our actions, but still refrain from these actions because of their unethical nature or harmful consequences.

1.6 Metaphors for time

Within cognitive semantics, metaphor is given a central role in human cognition, since it enables us to make abstract concepts more tangible (Saeed 2003:347). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) explore a number of conceptual metaphors in the English language, making the claim that all abstract concepts ultimately are metaphors based on our experience of the physical world. This view is challenged and presented in a more moderate version by Pinker (2007:276), claiming many of these metaphors are effectively ‘dead’, and that ‘the living ones could never be learned, understood, or used as a reasoning tool unless they were built out of more abstract concepts that capture the similarities and differences between the symbol and the symbolized.’ Nevertheless, Pinker sees metaphors as central in human cognition: ‘The human mind comes equipped with an ability to penetrate the cladding of sensory appearance and discern the abstract construction underneath.’ (Pinker 2007:276).

In relation to the concept of time, Lakoff and Johnson present three related metaphors used in the English language, all dealing with time in terms of physical space. The first is the TIME ORIENTATION metaphor (so called by Pinker 2007:191), in which ‘an observer is located at the present, with the past behind him and the future in front.’ (Pinker 2007:191) Examples of this are found in the sentences presented by Lakoff and Johnson (1980:41):

- (6) In the weeks ahead of us...
- (7) That’s all behind us now...

The second metaphor is TIME AS A MOVING OBJECT, and depicts time as a ‘parade that sweeps past a stationary observer’ (Pinker 2007:191)

- (8) The time will come when type-writers are obsolete
- (9) The summer is flying by.

Finally, in the MOVING OBSERVER metaphor ‘the landscape of time is stationary and the observer proceeds through it’ (Pinker 2007:191):

- (10) There’s trouble down the road
- (11) We passed the deadline

Although the TIME AS AMOVING OBJECT and MOVING OBSERVER metaphors are incompatible, Lakoff and Johnson point out that they are still coherent in that they both depict time as something that passes us, from front to back (Lakoff and Johnson 1980:44).

A central question, however, is whether these metaphors still contribute to our conception of time, or just remain as “dead metaphors”.

2.0 Future reference in English

2.1 Introduction

According to Leech (1987:56), the following five verb-phrase constructions are the most important ways in which future meaning is expressed in English:

Will/shall/'ll + infinitive

Be going to

Present Progressive

Simple Present

Will/Shall + Progressive Infinitive

Moreover, he claims that these have distinct meanings, and therefore are not interchangeable. In the following I will present each construction with regard to its meaning, mainly based on Leech's descriptions.

2.2 Will+infinitive

This construction is held to be the most common and neutral way of referring to future events in English (Hasselgård et al. 1998:198). As stated in the section on modality, the auxiliary verb *will* has two meanings, one extrinsic, logical meaning of 'prediction', and one intrinsic of 'volition'. When used in its extrinsic sense, it represents the nearest approximation to a 'neutral' and 'colourless' future in English, although implicitly involving speaker judgement (Leech 1987:57).

(12) If you do everything as I tell you, all will go well. (ROB1)

Bare du gjør alt som jeg sier, skal du få det godt.(ROB1T)

Will can also, however, express a kind of prediction that refers to the present or past (Leech 1987:84):

(13) They will have arrived home by now

As Leech points out, predictions about the future, the present and the past all belong to the more general idea of making statements about things that are not directly observable. To this extent, *will* ('prediction') can be paraphrased: 'It is a predictable or characteristic fact

about life that...' (Leech 1987:85). In its 'prediction'-sense, *will* is normally pronounced without stress, and may be contracted to *'ll* (Leech 1987:85).

Regarding its intrinsic sense, Leech (1987:85-87) describes *will* as being able to express varying degrees of volition. The weakest degree is 'willingness', in sentences like

- (14) I'll lend you some money, if you like.

At the other end of the scale is 'insistence':

- (15) He will go swimming in dangerous waters

In the general description of modality above, we saw that the intrinsic and extrinsic meanings of modals were presented as mutually exclusive, so that e.g. the meaning of *may* is either 'possibility' or 'permission', but not both. This seems to be true for all the modals dealing with necessity/obligation and possibility/permission, but a similar disjunction does not hold for prediction/volition. As Leech concedes, the 'volition'-meanings of *will* frequently combine with the future implication of 'prediction' (Leech 1987:85). Sentences like

- (16) I'll write tomorrow

do not appear to be ambiguous, expressing either prediction or volition, but rather semantically vague, combining them.

There are, however, contexts in which the distinction is clear-cut. Instances of *will*+infinitive where the main verb is non-agentive, for example, can only be interpreted as 'predictions':

- (17) "Under the People's Republican Party's rule, nobody in Britain will starve," said Jack. (ENPC:ST1)
"Ingen kommer til å sulte så lenge det republikanske folkeparti har makten i dette landet," sa Jack.
(ENPC:ST1T)

Also, the 'insistence'-sense of *will*, representing volition in its purest form, cannot be contracted as *'ll*, and is stressed in pronunciation (Leech 1987:85).

The fuzzy boundary between volition and prediction can perhaps be explained by the fact that 'certain notions might be classed equally well as modal, aspectual or temporal'

(Lyons 1968:317). On the one hand one might argue that there is a conceptual difference between prediction and volition: In terms of time-deixis, prediction refers to events taking place at a point of time after the time of utterance, while expressions of volition refer to the wishes and intentions existing in the mind of the speaker at the time of utterance. But given the fact that we view the future (to a greater or lesser extent) to be determined by our present intentions, such distinctions are not necessarily felt to be important by language users in real-world conversations.

2.3 *Shall+infinitive*

Traditionally, it has been claimed that *will* and *shall* are equivalent in meaning, and that the choice between them is dependent on the type of subject:

According to many language mavens, in proper English the future auxiliary is *shall* for the first person but *will* for the second and third; if you switch them around, you get a declaration of intent rather than a genuine future tense. Thus *I will drown, no one shall save me* is the defiant vow of a suicide; *I shall drown, no one will save me* is the pathetic prediction of a doomed wretch (Pinker 2007:196).

The rationale behind this is, according to Pinker, that ‘other than totalitarian despots, a person can determine his own immediate future more reliably than someone else’s, so the mixture of wilfulness and prediction packed into a future auxiliary can vary from the first person to the second and third’ (Pinker 2007:196). Pinker himself questions the validity of this, as he is ‘sceptical that any Englishman has made this distinction in the past century’ (Pinker 2007:196). In this he agrees with Lyons, who claims that the rules that are given for the choice between *will* and *shall* by normative grammarians are based ‘for the most part upon preconceived ideas as to what ought to be the difference between them, rather than upon the usage of any group of English speakers’ (Lyons 1968:306).

According to Leech (1987:87), the use of *shall* is declining, and only appears in a few, restricted linguistic contexts. Moreover, he claims that it usually only combines with first-person subjects, either in predictions as a formal equivalent of *will* (Leech 1987:87),

(18) I shall miss her.(ENPC:PDJ3)

"Jeg kommer til å savne henne. (ENPC:PDJ3T)

or as a formal alternative in expressions of intention:

- (19) "In that case I shall assume responsibility for the mortgage. (ENPC:DL1)
 "I så fall skal jeg påta meg ansvaret for avdragene. (ENPC:DL1T)

In addition, there is a rather common volitional use of *shall* in questions:

- (20) "Shall I close your suitcase for you?" (ENPC:ABR1)
 "Skal jeg lukke kofferten din for deg?" (ENPC:ABR1T)

Here, the roles are changed, however, so that the attitude in question is not the speaker's, but the hearer's. The sentence may be paraphrased: 'Do you want me to close the suitcase for you?'.
 Thus, in contrast to the traditional view Leech suggests that the substitution of *shall* for *will* does not result in a change in semantic meaning, but rather represents a stylistic shift, syntactically restricted by subject-type.

2.4 BE+going to

From the lexical meaning of this construction, it is reasonable to assume that it has developed as a metaphorical extension by means of the MOVING OBSERVER metaphor: Just as we move through space to reach a specific destination, our movement through time can be seen as movement towards specific goals in the future. However, today this is not likely to be at the front of the speaker's mind, which serves to indicate BE+going to is a dead metaphor.

The construction BE+going to can be described as having two related meanings, both viewing the future events as 'fulfilment of the present' (Leech 1987:59). The first is 'the future culmination of present intention', as in

- (21) There's a story inside me which I 'm going to write, no matter how long it takes. (ENPC:ABR1)
 Jeg har en historie inni meg som jeg skal skrive, uansett hvor lang tid det tar. (ENPC:ABR1T)

Not surprisingly, this use is found chiefly with human subjects and agentive verbs.

The second meaning of BE+going to is 'the future culmination of present cause'. This covers a wider range of contexts than the intentional meaning, as it is not restricted by type of subject or main verb (Leech 1987:60).

- (22) "Fun evening this is going to be," was all he could think of to say.(ENPC:FW1)
 "Det blir nok en festlig aften," var alt han kunne komme på å si. (ENPC:FW1T)

In this sarcastic remark, the speaker is probably referring to present circumstances indicating that the evening is going to be anything but fun.

Seeing a future event as a fulfilment of a present cause implies the notion that the train of events leading to the future event is already under way. Thus, this use is often found in references to the immediate future. In such sentences, *going to* can be replaced with *about to*, which also implies immediacy (Leech 1987:60):

- (23) I'm going to bleed to death."(ENPC:RR1)
"Hjelp meg, jeg blør i hjel." (ENPC:RR1T)

This does not mean that the causal use of *be going to* is restricted to events the near future, however. Leech (1987:61) presents a convincing example to the contrary:

- (24) If Winterbottom's calculations are correct, this planet is going to burn itself out 200,000,000 years from now.

As we can see, the meanings of BE+*going to* have much in common with the meanings of *will* and *shall*. Here as well, there is one intrinsic meaning of volition and one extrinsic meaning of 'prediction'. Thus 'future as a fulfilment of the present' could also be used as a description of *will* and *shall*. This has led linguists to look for differences between *will* and BE+*going to* in other levels of language description. For example, Quirk et al. (1985:214) claim that the difference is stylistic rather than semantic, BE+*going to* representing the informal alternative. This is supported by Mair (1997:1538), who accuses semantic descriptions such as those presented by Leech as being 'too coarse to capture the precise distinction between *going to* and alternative ways of expressing futurity...'. In a corpus-based study Mair shows that the use of the *going to*-future is spreading in written English, and argues that this is due to colloquialisation; rather than semantic change, it is an example of a general stylistic shift in which informal language is gaining ground (Mair 1997:1541).

2.5 Present progressive

Leech describes the future-referring present progressive as denoting a 'future event anticipated by virtue of a present plan, programme or arrangement' (Leech 1987:62). Example 24 illustrates this:

- (25) I 'm leaving for a week, and I don't have a soul to look after him. (ENPC:AT1)
 Jeg skal være borte en uke, og har ingen som kan se etter ham. (ENPC:AT1T)

As a result of its meaning, this use of the present progressive is restricted to human agents, and verbs signifying single events, chiefly motion verbs (Leech 1987:63).

The difference between the futural present progressive and the 'intention'-use of *be going to* is that while intentions are part of one's present state of mind, arrangements are already predetermined in the past, regardless of present thoughts (Leech 1987:62). Because plans and arrangements generally are seen as more unalterable than one's own intentions, this change of emphasis can be exploited by speakers to communicate that a future event is unavoidable, and that there is no room for discussing the matter:

- (26) I 'm leaving for a week, and I do n't have a soul to look after him. (ENPC:AT1)
 Jeg skal være borte en uke, og har ingen som kan se etter ham. (ENPC:AT1T)

Because arrangements are typically involve events in the near rather than distant future, the future-referring present progressive is associated with imminence (Leech 1987:62).

From these description, it seems like the future-referring present progressive appear to have only intrinsic meaning, involving intention. Moreover, its meaning seems to express 'unalterable intention', implying that the issue is not open for discussion.

2.6 Simple present

Future-referring simple present is most commonly used in dependent clauses, e.g. clauses introduced by conditional and temporal conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *when*, *as soon as*, *as* etc.

- (27) I 'll tell you when I come back."(ABR1)
 Jeg skal si fra når jeg kommer tilbake."(ABR1T)

A more rare use is found in independent clauses, in which the purpose is to present future events 'as fact' (Leech 1987:65). In other words, it 'attributes to the future the same degree of certainty that we normally accord to present or past events.' This use is marked, since it overrides the feeling that the future is less certain than the present and the past:

- (28) "I leave for England tomorrow afternoon," he said.(AT1)
 "Jeg drar til England i morgen kveld," sa han. (AT1T)

To be interpreted as being future-referring, this construction must be accompanied by a time adverbial, unless it occurs in a context where some definite point of time in the future is assumed (Leech 1987:66)

In other words, Leech describes the second, rare use of future-referring present tense as a kind of prediction, marked for a higher level of certainty than *will*. Thus, unlike present progressive it has extrinsic meaning. But just like the present progressive, it describes future events as being unavoidable.

2.7 *Will+progressive infinitive*

In accordance with the general use of the progressive aspect, this construction can be used to refer to temporary situations in the future, often setting up a ‘temporal frame’ around some specific event (Leech 1987:67). In the sentence below, the ‘frame’ is the fact that someone is expecting the addressee, and the specific event is his/her arrival.

- (29) "I 've telephoned to say that it 's on its way, so she 'll be expecting you.(PDJ3)
"Jeg har ringt og sagt at den er på vei, så hun venter Dem. (PDJ3T)

Additionally, there is an independent, perfective use of this construction, as in

- (30) Alice Mair said: "I 'll be driving to London within the next week.(PDJ3)
Alice Mair sa: "Jeg skal kjøre til London en tur om en uke. (PDJ3T)

The meaning of this use, as distinguished from that of *will* and present progressive, is hard to pin down. Leech (1987:68) suggests that a fitting description would be ‘future as a matter of course’, and speculates that it may have developed out of the need for a future-referring expression that did not involve volition.

Will+progressive infinitive is frequently used as a polite and tactful alternative to *will+infinitive*. The sentence above, for instance, could for instance precede an offer to go on an errand on behalf of the addressee, or as a way of offering a ride. Due to the lack of implications of volition and intention, the hearer is assured that the journey will be made anyway, and that the favour does not cause the speaker any trouble (Leech 1987:69).

3.0 Future reference in Norwegian

3.1 Introduction

There are many similarities between the ways future meaning is expressed in English compared to Norwegian. In Norwegian too, modal auxiliaries dealing with volition and intention play an important role. And as in English, there is a fixed expression reflecting a conceptual metaphor dealing with time in terms of physical space. Finally, verb phrases in present tense are frequently used to express futurity, much more frequently than in e.g. English and German (Vinje 1978:38). But unlike English, Norwegian does not have a progressive aspect equivalent to that expressed by BE+*-ing* in English, and hence there are no obvious equivalents for the present progressive and *will/shall*+present progressive:

The modal auxiliaries <i>ville</i> and <i>skulle</i> :	Hun skal reise i morgen
The expression <i>kommer til å</i> :	Hun kommer til å reise i morgen
Present tense:	Hun reiser i morgen

Another grammatical difference between English and Norwegian is the general propensity of Norwegian modals to occur both as auxiliaries and as main verbs. This tendency seems to be particularly common in sentences having to do with movement:

- (31) Vi skal en tur til doktoren." (ENPC:LSC1)
(Vi skal ta en tur til doktoren)
We 're going to take a trip to the doctor." (LSC1T)
(*We shall a trip to the doctor)

The verb *ta* seems to be implicit in the first sentence, and the inclusion of it does not produce any change in the meaning. This indicates that the choice between the two is facultative, although any conclusion on this point is beyond the scope of the present study.

3.2 *Vil+infinitive*

The meaning of *vil* when used as a future-referring expression is characterised by Hagen (2004:303) as 'intensjonsuavhengig fremtid' ('intention-independent future'). In contrast, he describes the meaning of *skal* as 'intensjonsstyrt fremtid' ('intention-controlled futurity'), i.e. events in the future that are subject to human control. To illustrate this distinction, he includes the following examples:

- 32) Tor skal (*vil) reise til Amerika på studieopphold (intention-controlled)
 33) Det vil (*skal) sikkert bli godt vær i morgen (intention-independent)

In the first sentence, which implies a conscious decision on part of the agent, *skal* is the natural choice. But in the second, which describes an event that is held to be out of human control (the weather), *vil* is a more likely choice as *skal* would imply the assumption that somebody is intentionally controlling the weather.

In the first sentence above, a substitution of *vil* for *skal* brings out an additional sense of *vil*. Just like the English *will*, it also has an intrinsic meaning, expressing volition. However, there seems to be an important difference between the two in that *will* implies intention while *vil* does not. As we have seen, ‘intention’ differs from ‘desire’ or ‘wish’ in that it implies the presence of the belief that the desired object can be attained through one’s own actions, and the belief that one will do acts in the future for the purpose of attaining the object. But the sentence ‘Tor vil reise til Amerika på studieopphold’ has no such implications. Rather than stating that Tor has the intention of leaving for America, it merely states that he has a desire to do so.

Golden et al. (2008:216) points out that *vil*, in its extrinsic sense, is more common in written, formal language than in conversation.

3.3 *Skal+infinitive*

Faarlund et al. (1997:604) describes numerous uses of the modal auxiliary *skulle*, out of which three seem particularly relevant to the topic of future reference. The first of these is intrinsic and expresses ‘obligation’:

- 34) "Du skal ikke spise mellom måltidene," sier faren. (ENPC:LSC1)
 "You should n't eat between meals," says Father. (ENPC:LSC1T)

The second is already named ‘intention-controlled future’ by Hagen in the section on *vil*, and expresses decisions or planned acts (Faarlund et al. 1997:604):

- 35) "Jeg skal selvfølgelig skaffe en ny bløtkake til Dem imorgen." (ENPC:LSC2)
 "I'll get you another cake tomorrow, of course." (ENPC:LSC2T)

Finally, *skal* is used in utterances that report a rumour, or information the speaker has heard from somebody else:

- 36) Jeg har hørt at du skal være så lynende flink." (ENPC:EHA1)
I 've heard you 're supposed to be incredibly smart." (ENPC:EHA1T)

3.4 Kommer til å

Regarding the expression *kommer til*+infinitive there is little description to be found in the literature, although it is widely recognised as an expression of future time. According to Golden et al. (2008:216), it usually refers to an expected event, without implying that it is the result of deliberate intention.

- 37) Jeg kommer til å savne deg..."(KF2)
I 'll miss you...."(KF2T)

The verb *komme*, in its typical sense, is equivalent to the English *arrive*. This indicates that it, like the English BE+*going to*, has evolved out the conceptual metaphor viewing time in terms of physical space. The most likely metaphorical interpretation is perhaps in terms of the MOVING OBSERVER-metaphor, in which the speaker is seen moving towards the event.

According to Golden et al., this expression only has extrinsic meaning, as it ‘ignores’ human agents and simply predicts the event. This seems to fit well with ‘future as a matter of course,’ which is the description Leech (1987:68) gives the English expression *will*+progressive infinitive.

3.5 Present tense

A commonly held view is that *will/shall*+infinitive is the most common way of expressing futurity in English, while the present tense has a similar role in Norwegian (Hasselgård 1998:188, Vinje 1978:39). Its ability to refer to the future is depends on the lexical aspect of the verb, however: For instance, the present tense is commonly used for expressing future time with momentaneous verbs that describe a change of state, like the equivalents for the English *quit, begin, move*.

- 38) Hun slukker lampen og ser på blendingsgardinen, snart **begynner** de å røre på seg, alle ansiktene og dyrene i det sorte stoffet. (ENPC:BV2)
She switches out the light and looks at the black-out blind; soon they will begin to move, all the faces and animals in the black material. (ENPC:BV2T)

The futuristic meaning in such sentences derives from the fact that non-durative verbs often mark the transition into a new situation in the future. If the lexical aspect is durative, on the other hand, the interpretation will be that the situation referred to is going on at the present and indefinitely into the future. In Norwegian it is therefore strictly not necessary to mark non-durative verbs for future, although adverbs specifying time and place often are added (Faarlund et al 2006).

The present tense is also common with durative verbs that describe a situation or a state that lasts into the future (Faarlund et al. 2006):

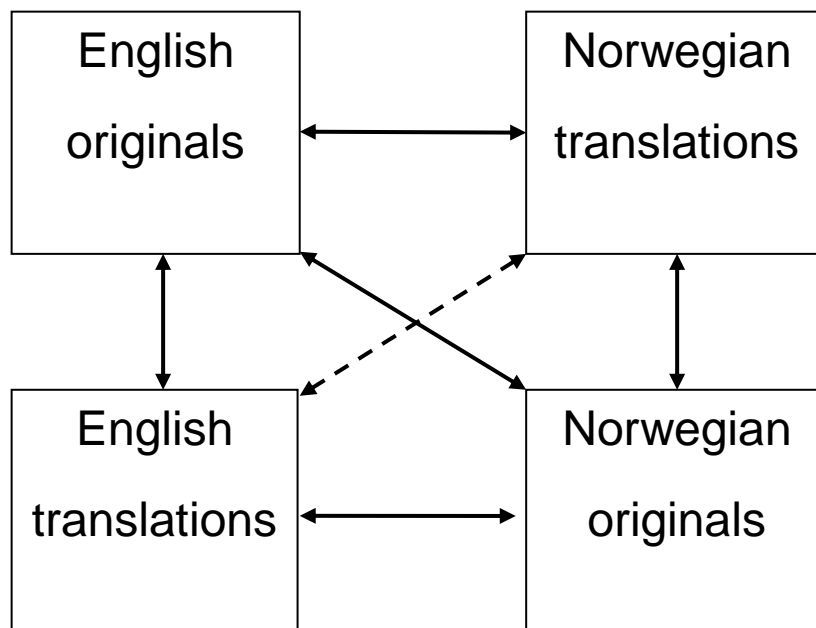
- 39) "I'll wait till Saturday." (ENPC:AT1)
"Jeg venter til lørdag." (ENPC:AT1T)

4.0 Material and method

4.1 The English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus

In providing the data for the analysis, I used the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus. This is a bi-directional translation corpus with translations going both ways, producing the schematic structure in figure 2 (Johansson 2004:61).

Figure 2. The model for the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus



As the arrows indicate, this corpus model offers a range of possibilities for contrastive studies: Firstly, comparison can be made between parallel original texts, symbolized by the solid diagonal line. Secondly, and indicated by the horizontal lines, comparison can be made between original texts and their translations. Finally, the model facilitates translation studies of various kinds. Symbolised by the vertical lines, these can focus on translation problems viewed from either language, or deviations of translated texts as compared with original texts in the same language. And, symbolised by the broken diagonal line, they may focus general features of translated texts (ENPC manual).

In addition, and not visible in the illustration above, ENPC offers the choice between fictional and non-fictional texts. ‘Non-fiction’ here includes mainly academic writing, official documents and biographies. Comparison between fiction and non-fiction is useful for revealing stylistic variation: One important difference between fiction and non-fiction is that fictional texts frequently involve narrative dramatization, in which writers try to emulate realistic records of speech and thought (Toolan 1998:106). Thus, one may expect the

distinction between fiction and non-fiction to reflect other, more fundamental linguistic distinctions. One such distinction is the one between formal, planned discourse and discourse that is informal and unplanned (Cook 1989:50). This is supported by findings in Biber (1986:399) showing that fictional texts have a more situated and less abstract content than official documents and academic prose. More specifically, fiction contained more features that are associated with a low degree of formality, like relative pronoun deletion and subordinator *that* deletion. It also contained fewer features that are associated with a high level of formality, like passives, split auxiliary and long word-length (Biber 1986:396).

4.2 Translation and the levels of language

The essence of the analysis of this study is a comparison of original texts and their translations. In order to understand this material, it is therefore necessary to take a look at the nature of translation itself.

In the field of translation theory, equivalence is held to be the ultimate goal of translation. There is, however, disagreements on how to define 'equivalence'. In this, Halliday (2001) presents an approach based on his stratified model of language, which is a modification of the traditional linguistic levels. He sees language as being organised into different strata: phonetic, phonological, lexicogrammatical and semantic – and one or more contextual strata outside of language proper. Moreover, he sees the different strata as falling into two broad categories, 'formal' and 'content' strata, with lexicogrammar as a borderline case. The formal strata (phonology and lexicogrammar) are organised in a compositional hierarchy called 'rank'. In languages like English and Norwegian, clause complexes have the highest rank, followed by clauses, phrases, groups, words and finally morphemes. The content strata (semantics and lexicogrammar) are organised in functional components: ideational, interpersonal and textual. Roughly, these refer to the ways in which language is used for construing of human experience, enacting social relationships, and creating discourse respectively (Halliday 2001:15).

Relating this model of language to the process of interlingual translation, Halliday argues that 'equivalence at different strata carries differential values ... in most cases the value that is placed on it goes up in the higher stratum – semantic equivalence is valued more highly than lexicogrammatical, and contextual equivalence perhaps most highly of all' (Halliday 2001:15). Similarly, with regard to rank, value normally goes up in the higher ranks, so that formal equivalence at clause level is valued more than on the word level. By

contrast to strata and rank, metafunction has no ordering when viewed as part of the system of language. In translation, however, the ideational metafunction usually carries far more value than the others two (Halliday 2001:16). That is, the subject matter of a text is usually valued more than the way the text interacts with the addressee.

The reason why differential values is a key to understanding the translation process, is that it difficult to imagine an instance of interlingual translation where the target text is equivalent to the source text at all strata, all ranks and in all metafunctions. Usually, the options available to the translator in the target language represent conflicts between different kinds of equivalence, so that priority must be given to one at the cost of another. The fact that value goes up in the higher strata and ranks, and that the ideational metafunction usually has higher value than the others, means that translators tend to give priority to them as they choose their wording. But these relative values can always be varied, and often are, according to what kind text the translator is dealing with, or the requests of the publisher: 'In any particular instance of translation, value may be attached to equivalence at different ranks, different strata, different metafunctions... A 'good' translation is a text which is a translation (i.e. is equivalent) in respect of those linguistic features which are most valued in the given translation context (Halliday 2001:17).

A good example of a context in which lower strata might be valued more than the higher is the translation of a lyrical poem. In poetry, sounds are very important, and the poets frequently make use of them as literary means in order to produce certain effects. Thus, it is in the interest of the translator to preserve e.g. alliteration, sometimes at the expense of equivalence at the lexicogrammatical stratum – maybe even the semantic.

The observation of linguistic levels is also important in contrastive analysis. Any contrastive analysis consists of two steps – first the two languages are described on the appropriate level, and then they are juxtaposed for comparison (James 1985:30). In the description stage, observance can be adhered to, but it is often necessary to cross levels at the comparison stage. There reason is a phenomena James (1985:30) calls 'interlingual level shifts,' meaning that the same distinction may be expressed on different levels in two languages. For example, we have seen that Norwegian does not have grammatical aspect. As a consequence, the distinction expressed through the present progressive/simple present distinction in English must be expressed at other levels than grammar in Norwegian.

4.3 Method

In devising a research method for a computer-based corpus study, considerations of precision and recall are central. The relatedness of the two is described by Ball (1994):

‘Recall and precision are measures of retrieval effectiveness generally used in information retrieval studies, where precision is the proportion of the retrieved material that is relevant, and recall is the proportion of relevant information that was retrieved... Poor precision can be dealt with by hand, e.g. by editing the output of the search to eliminate non-instances of the type. However, precision errors often lead to a narrowing of the search criteria, which in turn lead to a decrease in recall. The danger lies in the difficulty of assessing recall in a large corpus: it is generally impossible for the analyst to know what has been missed without analysing the entire corpus by hand’ (Ball 1994:295).

In other words, perfect recall usually means reduced precision, and perfect precision can usually only be obtained at the risk of poor recall.

In the ENPC search engine, there are a few a very useful tools for increasing precision. The first are two filters for specifying additional words in the search. For instance, when searching for instances the construction BE+*going to*, I used the search string ‘going’ and specified that the results should only include instances of *going* that were immediately followed by ‘to’. The second tool is two filters for specifying or excluding words in the corresponding sentence. When searching for the word ‘shall’, for example, one may insert the filter ‘and skal’ so that the results will only include instances of ‘shall’ where the Norwegian word ‘skal’ occurs in the corresponding sentence.

The purpose of this study is to make comparisons between English and Norwegian future-referring expressions by studying how they correlate with each other, in other words by exploring the ‘horizontal dimension’ in figure 2. However, a pilot-study proved that it was very difficult to make the searches precise enough. The most serious problem is that there is no way of searching for futuristic uses of the present tense or the present progressive; for one thing the ENPC is only partly tagged, but the real problem is that whether these structures have future meaning is entirely dependent on context. For this reason, I decided to concentrate on remaining, ‘searchable’ forms: in English, *will*+progressive infinitive, *will*+infinitive, *’ll*+infinitive, *shall*+infinitive and BE+*going to*; in Norwegian, *vil*+infinitive, *skal*+infinitive and *kommer til å*.

Another reason for poor precision was that forms like *will*, *going*, *skal* and *vil* are very common, and can be used in many contexts besides future reference. For example, *will* frequently occurs in tag questions. Since the interpersonal function of tag questions are more

important than their ideational function, translators are inclined to rephrase the sentence so that there is no lexicogrammatical equivalence with the source text:

- 40) "Just keep your nasty mouth shut, **will** you!" (ENPC:RD1)
— Lukk den skitne lille munnen din, er det greit? (ENPC:RD1T)

Furthermore, I encountered numerous sentences instances where there was a mismatch in the number of future-referring expressions. For instance, in example 41 the English sentence has two, while the corresponding Norwegian sentence has only one. In this particular case, *skal* is a translation of *'ll* rather than *will*.

- 41) The nurses **will** be close by, and I 'll instruct the resident." (ENPC:AH1)
Jeg skal si fra om det." (ENCP:AH1T)

Since it became clear that I was not able to exclude irrelevant hits sufficiently by using filters, and therefore would have to rely on manual reading anyway, I decided not specify for words in the corresponding sentence at all but instead process the results manually. Although increasing the workload, this at the same time ensured excellent recall. Instead of finding only translations that I was looking for, I could now present an exhaustive survey including all relevant correspondences.

The method I decided on was to perform two searches on each of the searchable expressions, one in the original texts and one in the translations. For each search I would read through the results and count the various correspondences manually. Since the translations included in the ENPC are published texts and therefore of good quality, a comparison between the results for original texts and translated texts in case of each expression is a good way of checking the validity of the results.

To save time, I decided only to count correspondences within the fictional segment of the corpus. However, the results include comparisons of frequency in fiction v. non-fiction in cases where I had reason to suspect that stylistic feature were in play.

4.4 Criteria for relevance

Because of the low precision and the large amounts of irrelevant data, I had to formulate clear criteria for regarding hits as relevant. This would enable me to exclude the ones who failed to meet them in a consistent manner rather than basing the decisions purely on notional criteria.

The three criteria are outlined below:

i. The sentences must refer to ‘future in the present’, as opposed to ‘future in the past’. By ‘future in the past’ I mean ways of describing events which are in the future from a deictic centre in the past. In English, this is done by the constructions *was/were going to*+infinitive, *would*+infinitive and past progressive are available for (Leech 1984:53). In Norwegian, a similar meanings are expressed with *ville*+infinitive, *skulle*+infinitive and *kom til å*+infinitive. Within the framework of predicate logic, the semantic distinction may be expressed thus:

a. $\exists t (t > t_0 \ \& \ t_0 = t_u)$

b. $\exists t (t > t_0 \ \& \ t_0 < t_u)$

Where ‘ \exists ’ is the existential quantifier, ‘ t ’ is the reference time, ‘ t_0 ’ is the deictic centre and ‘ t_u ’ is the time of utterance.

In a., which represents ‘future in the present’, the point of time referred to is subsequent to the deictic centre, and the deictic centre is identical to the time of utterance. In b., which represents ‘future in the past’, the reference time is subsequent to the deictic centre, the deictic centre being prior to the time of utterance. The importance of this criterion was especially important when searching for BE+*going to*, since the search string ‘going to’ returns both present and preterite forms.

There are, however, forms of *would* that I did find relevant, especially when preceding the words *like* and *rather*:

42) I would like to support my mother." (ENPC:ST1)

Jeg vil svært gjerne få være til støtte for min mor." (ENPC:ST1T)

Here, the deictic centre is clearly in the present, as the speaker expresses his/her wish (and perhaps even intention).

ii. Only comparable verb phrases are relevant.

Since the focus of this study is future reference by means of verb phrases, only instances where the corresponding sentences include comparable verb phrases will be included. By ‘comparable’ I here mean verb-phrase pairs that denote the same state or event and have the same tense and mood. This excludes instances where e.g. a verb phrase in present tense corresponds with one in past tense, or where a declarative sentence corresponds with an interrogative sentence. As we have seen, restrictions imposed by the target language often force translators to give priority to one type of equivalence rather than the other. This produces instances where there is a lack of equivalence on the phrase level. One instance of this is found in example 43:

43) Selv har jeg ikke lenger noe ansikt og **skal** følge henne til verdens ende for å få det tilbake, **skal** reise i bakovertid gjennom det forgjengelige, i sirkeltid der spirer gir frø og frø gir spirer, for å fange en fryd som jeg vet finnes, ny som epleblomster og trofast som våren. (ENPC:SL1)

I myself have lost my face and must follow her to the end of the world to get it back, travel back in time through what has been, in circular time where buds give seeds and seeds give buds, to capture a joy that I know exists, new as apple blossom and faithful as the spring. (ENPC:SL1T)

Here, the Norwegian *skal* occurs twice in the original text. In the target text, *skal* is translated *must* in the first clause, and then left out in the following clause by means of ellipsis, leaving *must* to be implicitly understood. Thus, the phrases *skal reise i bakovertid* and *travel back in time* are not comparable. In the terminology of Halliday (2001), we might say that there is equivalence at the clause complex rank, but not at the phrase rank. Moreover, there is equivalence on the semantic stratum, but not on the lexicogrammatical.

Another phrase-pair failing this test appears in the following example:

44) Varmtvannet er aldri mer enn lunkent, og moren vår varmer vann i tekjelen og slår det i karet når vi **skal** bade: "For å få av den verste skitten," sier hun. (ENPC:MA1T)

The hot water is never more than lukewarm, and our mother heats water in the tea kettle and pours it into the tub for our baths. "Just to get the crust off," she says.(ENPC:MA1)

Out of context, the meaning of Norwegian phrase *skal bade* could perhaps be expressed by ‘are about to take a bath’, which exemplifies the use of a rather common future-referring expression in English. Instead, in the English sentence there is no verb phrase at all. Again, there is semantic equivalence at the clause rank, but not at the phrase-rank.

iii. Of expressions carrying with volition-meaning, only structures that allow for an interpretation that includes intention are relevant.

As mentioned earlier, I will not maintain a sharp distinction between future reference and modality, as these notions are deeply interrelated. However, an exception seems necessary for dealing with instances of volition-meaning that clearly are not of immediate relevance to a discussion on future meaning. In particular, Norwegian *vil* is often translated into verb phrases headed by *want*. If *vil* and *want* are complemented by an infinitive phrase like in the sentences below, it is often possible to interpret this as an expression of intention – and therefore as a tentative future reference:

45) Som du skjønner, **vil** jeg gi deg en gave som du kan vokse på. (ENPC:JG1)

As I 'm sure you 'll understand, I **want** to give you a present that will help you grow. (ENPC:JG1T)

If, however, the infinitive phrase is headed by a subject, such an interpretation is impossible:

46) "Jeg **vil** at du skal lage et hull i trestykket.(ENPC:SH1)

"I want you to make a hole in the piece of wood. (ENPC:SH1T)

Here, the wishes of the main subject concern the future behavior of somebody else, and therefore events beyond its immediate control. Thus, while example 45 allows for an interpretation of ‘intention’, example 46 does not (That fact that sentences like these can be used for interpersonal functions like requests and commands, and hence as means of controlling the future indirectly, is a different matter).

5.0 Results for individual expressions

5.1 Overall frequencies

Table 1 shows the total number of relevant hits for each expression in original texts and translations.

Table 1. Overall frequencies for each expression

Expression	Original texts	Translations
<i>'ll</i> +infinitive	388	344
<i>will</i> +infinitive	294	365
BE+ <i>going to</i>	158	138
<i>shall</i> +infinitive	46	59
<i>will/'ll</i> +progressive infinitive	36	12
<i>skal</i> +infinitive	481	307
<i>vil</i> +infinitive	349	318
<i>kommer til å</i>	30	107

Not surprisingly, the numbers show that *will* and its contracted form *'ll* are the most common of the English forms. This supports with the widely held view that ‘the *will/'ll* future is the most common and neutral way of referring to future events’ in English (Hasselgård et al. 1998:189). BE+*going to* returned about half as many hits as these, while *shall* and *will/'ll*+progressive infinitive was found to be relatively infrequent. In Norwegian, *skal* and *vil* both returned more than 300 hits. In comparison, the return for *kommer til å* is very low in original texts, with only 30 instances.

It is important to note that this does not reveal the whole truth about the frequency of future-referring expressions in the two languages. Most notably, we have no effective way of finding the frequency of the future-referring uses of the simple present and the present

progressive (in English only). This is a significant ‘leak’, as the future-referring use of the present tense is held to be very common in Norwegian (Hasselgård et al. 1998:189).

With many of the expressions, there are discrepancies between the frequency counts in original texts and translation. This is the true about e.g. *skal* and *will/’ll+prog.inf.*, but the gap is particularly large in the case of *kommer til å*, which was found to be more than three times as frequent in the translations as in original texts. This could mean that this amounts to a systematic difference between original texts and translations, and thus an example of what is commonly called ‘translationese’: features of translated texts more characteristic of the source language than the target language (Meyer 2002:23). This will be examined further in a later chapter.

In the following the results for each expression is presented in tables, where the different correspondences are ranked according to frequency. For the sake of simplicity, and to save space, I have only included translations that occurred more than once.

5.2.0 Correlations for English expressions

5.2.1 *will+progressive infinitive*

In searching for this construction, I performed two searches using the string ‘be’ and the filters ‘and +1 *ing’ and ‘and -1 x’. In each search I replaced x by ‘will’ and ‘’ll’ respectively, thereby included instances with the contracted form ‘ll.

Table 2. Correlations for *will+progressive infinitive*

original→translation (36)

translation→original (12)

	total	%			total	%
present tense	9	0,25		present tense	7	0,58
<i>vil</i> +infinitive	9	0,25		<i>skal</i> +infinitive	3	0,25
<i>skal</i> +infinitive	7	0,19		<i>blir</i> +*ende	1	0,08
<i>kommer til å</i>	6	0,17		<i>kan</i>	1	0,08
<i>blir</i>	2	0,06				

As table 1 has already indicated, this is the least frequent of the English expressions included in this study. In its correspondences, both present tense, *vil*, *skal* and *kommer til å* are strongly represented, and this result is very similar to that of of ‘ll and *will*.

Relying on Norwegian correspondences as a way of analysing the meaning of this construction is problematic, however, since Norwegian does not have progressive aspect. In

English, the progressive aspect is used for referring to ‘activities and situations and events in progress at a particular time, usually for a limited amount of time’ (Biber 2005:162).

Although aspect is not a grammatical category in Norwegian, this does not mean that differences regarding the internal temporal constitution of events are ignored altogether. But instead of grammatical aspect, in Norwegian there are syntactical constructions with meanings that correspond to the ones expressed by aspect in other languages (Faarlund et al.1997:644). Corresponding with progressive aspect, Norwegian has what Faarlund et al. calls ‘imperfektivt aspekt’ (imperfective aspect), e.g. expressed by using the constructions *stå* og and *sitte* og:

47) "Det ser ut som du **står** og snakker med treet. (ENPC:THA1)

"You look as if you 're talking to the tree. (ENPC:THA1T)

Because it involves the progressive aspect, it is reasonable to think of *will*+progressive infinitive as a ‘future progressive’, referring to the same sort of situations in the future as the present progressive refers to in the present. However, in the correspondences for *will*+progressive infinitive, I encountered very few attempts to combine futurity and imperfective aspect in Norwegian. The most common correspondence, occurring with punctual verbs, was the present tense:

48) A nurse will **be** coming along soon." (ENPC:ST1)

Det kommer en pleierske om ikke så lenge." (ENPC:ST1T)

One instance where imperfective and futuristic meanings in fact are combined is found example 49, which includes a combination of *blir* and a verb with the suffix *-ende*:

49) Perhaps I 'll **be** sitting here with that baby all night!" (ENPC:BV1T)

Kanskje blir jeg sittende her med barnet i hele natt!" (ENPC:BV1)

The lack of imperfective aspect in the correspondences of *will*+progressive infinitive is perhaps an indication that the imperfective aspect is not as important in this expression after all. As we have seen, Leech (1987:68) offers a different approach, suggesting that its essential quality may be that it is not coloured by matters of volition; it simply portrays a future event as a ‘matter of course’. The results presented here, however, do not give any indications of how the meaning of this expression differs from e.g. *will*+infinitive. But given the infrequency of *will*+progressive infinitive in the ENPC, any reliable conclusions about its meaning and use would have to be based on a more substantial material.

5.2.2 *will*+infinitive

The search string ‘will’ returned 294 relevant hits in the original texts, while 365 were found in the translated texts. Obviously, the search also returned all instances of the construction *will*+progressive infinitive, but these were excluded from the results.

In addition to the problem with tag questions which I have already mentioned, another frequent source of irrelevant hits was that the search also returned all instances of the homonymous noun *will*:

- 50) Women who live by the good **will** of men have no control over their lives, and that 's the truth of it.
(ENPC:FW1)

Kvinner som lever på menns gode vilje, har ingen kontroll over livet sitt, det er sannheten.
(ENPC:FW1T)

The results for *will* revealed also found with *'ll* and *going to*, namely that English modals can combine to form sequences, often involving the semi-modals *have to* and *need to*:

- 51) If you listen to everything they say, he told Mum, you **will have to** perform absurd sacrifices every time you step outside your door. (ENPC:BO1)

Hvis du hører på alt det de sier, sa han til mamma, **må** du foreta meningsløse ofringer hver gang du går ut av døra. (ENPC:BO1T)

In these cases it is difficult to classify the correspondence within the framework of this study. One way of reading it is as an instance of *will*+infinitive translated into *må*+infinitive in Norwegian. But one could just as well interpret it as a translation into present tense, as *have to* and *må* (present tense of *måtte*) are very similar in meaning, and *will* merely adds futurity in the English sentence. Due to the difficulties of classification, sequences of modals and their correspondences was excluded from the results for all the English expressions.

Table 3. Correlations for *will*+infinitive

<u>E orig → N trans (294)</u>			<u>E trans → N orig (365)</u>		
	total	%		total	%
<i>vil</i> +infinitive	107	0,36	present tense	109	0,30
present tense	68	0,23	<i>skal</i> +infinitive	103	0,28
<i>skal</i> +infinitive	36	0,12	<i>vil</i> +infinitive	91	0,25
<i>kommer til å</i>	35	0,12	<i>blir</i>	32	0,09
<i>blir</i>	24	0,08	<i>kan</i>	8	0,02
<i>kan</i>	15	0,05	<i>kommer til å</i>	6	0,02
<i>får</i>	3	0,01	<i>får</i>	5	0,01
<i>må</i>	2	0,01	<i>må</i>	2	0,01

As the table shows, both *vil*, *skal* and present tense are strongly represented in both directions. Apart from this, however, there seems to be no clear pattern in the ordering of correspondences, and there are some obvious discrepancies in the frequencies. For example, *skal* makes up 12% of the correspondences in original texts, but 28% of the correspondences in translations. In the case of *kommer til å*, the discrepancy goes the opposite way, as this expression occurs more often as a correspondence of *will* in the original texts than in the translations.

Apart from the future-referring expressions we already know, and the modals *kan* and *må*, the table above includes the present-tense verb forms *blir* and *får*. An example of how *blir* is used for future reference is found in the following sentence:

52) Men det blir vanskelig..."(ENPC:BC1T)

But it will be difficult..." (ENPC:BC1)

The verb *bli* has several uses in Norwegian, e.g. as an auxiliary in passive constructions. As a main verb, its typical sense denotes change from one state to another, equivalent to the English *become* or ‘turn into’. As Næs (1979:274) points out, *er* (‘am/is/are’) and *blir* are often related to each other as present and future. Thus, *blir*+infinitive can be used as a future-referring expression in contexts where there is an underlying meaning of ‘being’, like in the example above.

The verb *få* is in many contexts equivalent to the English *receive* and *get*, but has perhaps a wider and more general meaning, approx. ‘to passively obtain possession of’. In much the same way as *blir* is related to *er*, *får* is related to *ha*, which is equivalent to the English verb *have* (Næs 1979:274). *Får*+infinitive can therefore be used as an expression of futurity where there is an underlying meaning of ‘having’:

53) "Når får dere resultatet av obduksjonen?" (ENPC:SG1T)

"When will you have the autopsy results?" (ENPC:SG1)

The question is, however, why *blir* and *får* used rather than present tense, *kommer til å* or the modals. As we have seen, the present tense is held to be the unmarked alternative for future reference in Norwegian (Vinje 1987:39). But while stative verbs like *ha* and *være* require adverbial specification (e.g. ‘tomorrow’, ‘next week’) or a modal auxiliary (e.g. *vil*) in order to have future meaning in present tense, punctual verbs like *få* and *bli* do not. Moreover, *får* and *blir* are semantically related to *ha* and *være*, since the notions of ‘being’ and ‘having’ follow ‘becoming’ and ‘receiving’ respectively by logical implication. In other words, the result of receiving x is always having x, and the result of becoming x is always being x. Since the situations referred to in the examples above are in the future relative to the deictic zero-point it is therefore possible to replace *være* and *ha* with *blir* and *får*.

This explanation seems to account for most futuristic uses of *blir* and *får*. But it is restrictive in that it presupposes a situation where there is a transition from one state to another: the moving from ‘not being’ to ‘being’ or ‘not having’ to ‘having’. This is not always the case, however. For example, such an explanation fails to account for perfectly acceptable sentences like the one in the example below, presented by Golden et al. (2008:216):

54) Det er pent vær nå. Det blir nok pent vær i morgen også

[‘The weather is nice. The weather will probably be nice tomorrow as well.’] (my translation)

Here, the verb *er* in the first sentence is substituted by *blir* in following, future-referring sentence. But there is no implication of ‘change of state’; the weather remains the same. This indicates that *blir* in some contexts simply represents a ‘future tense’ of the verb *være*.

Moreover, as example 55 shows, there are future-referring instances of ‘får’ which does not involve any underlying meaning of ‘having’:

55) "Det får vi diskutere ved en senere anledning, Philip," advarte dronningen ham. (ENPC:ST1T)

"We will discuss this later, Philip," the Queen warned. (ENPC:ST1)

This illustrates that *får* sometimes can be used as a modal auxiliary, usually with deontic meaning, expressing ‘orders’ or ‘requests’ (Faarlund et al (1997:625).

5.2.3 *‘ll+infinitive*

‘*ll*’ returned 388 relevant hits in the original texts and 344 in the translations. This makes *ll+infinitive* the most common of the English expressions in original texts.

Among the irrelevant hits were a number of sentence pairs that failed to meet the criterion of comparability at the phrase level, like the one below:

56) "I 'll be right there. (SG1)

"Jeg drar med én gang. (SG1T)

Interestingly, these sentences have very different meanings, as the English is about arrival and the Norwegian is about departure. This difference probably indicates that the two languages have different conventions for fulfilling the same function: assuring somebody who is waiting for you that you are on your way.

Table 4. Correlations for 'll+infinitive

<u>E.orig → N.trans (388)</u>			<u>E.trans → N.orig (344)</u>		
	total	%		total	%
present tense	135	0,35	present tense	156	0,45
skal+infinitive	94	0,24	skal+infinitive	78	0,23
vil+infinitive	46	0,12	vil+infinitive	46	0,13
kommer til å	34	0,09	blir	26	0,08
får	25	0,06	kommer til å	14	0,04
kan	21	0,05	får	13	0,04
blir	19	0,05	kan	6	0,02
må	5	0,01	må	5	0,01
gå og	2	0,01			

As with *will*+infinitive, present tense forms, *skal*+infinitive and *vil*+infinitive are the three most common correspondences. But here there seems to be a clearer pattern when it comes to the ordering of the three: in both directions, present tense forms are most common, followed by *skal*+infinitive and *vil*+infinitive.

In contrast to *will*, the correspondences of 'll includes the construction *gå og*. This is used in contexts that involve a strong sense of intention and determination:

57) "I 'll talk to her right now!" (ENPC:RDA1)

"Jeg går og snakker med henne med én gang." (ENPC:RDA1T)

The most striking difference between the results of *will* and 'll, however, is in the frequency with which they correspond with the Norwegian *vil*: in both originals and translations, *will* corresponds *vil vil* more than twice as often as 'll.

Because 'll is a contracted form of *will*, a reasonable assumption is that there is a stylistic difference between the two: In Biber et al. (2005:241) a comparison between the registers conversation, fiction, newspapers and academic writing shows that the registers make steeply decreasing use of contracted verb forms in the following order: conversation > fiction > news > academic writing. This indicates that verb contractions are associated with colloquial, informal language, and are therefore avoided in the formal language.

As a way of checking the frequency of *will* and *'ll* in different registers, I compared the frequencies for *will* and *'ll* in fiction v. non-fiction texts:

Table 5. Frequencies for 'll and will in fiction v. non-fiction

	Fiction	Non-fiction
<i>'ll</i>	463	21
<i>will</i>	367	338

The results clearly show that *'ll* is rare in non-fictional texts, but relatively common in fiction. For *will*, however, there is no significant variation in frequency. This indicates firstly that *'ll* is associated with informality. Secondly, the frequency of *will* is approximately equal in fiction and in non-fiction, and does not seem to be marked for a specific level of formality.

Thus, since there are clear differences between *will* and *'ll* both in their correspondence with Norwegian forms and their variation between registers, and these results indicate both semantic and stylistic differences, I will treat *'ll*+infinitive as an individual expression in the following.

5.2.4 shall+infinitive

‘Shall’ returned 46 relevant hits in the original texts and 59 in the translations. As with *will*, *shall* was found in tag questions, corresponding with irrelevant verb-phrases:

(58) We 'll put the kettle on and have a nice cup of tea, **shall** we?" (ENPC:ST1)

Vet du hva? Vi setter over kjelen så vi får oss en god kopp te, hva sier du til det?" (ENPC:ST1T)

Table 6. Correlations for *shall*+infinitive

<u>E.orig → N.trans (46)</u>			<u>E.trans → N.orig (59)</u>		
	total	%		total	%
<i>skal</i> +infinitive	25	0,54	<i>skal</i> +infinitive	44	0,75
present tense	9	0,20	present tense	6	0,10
<i>vil</i> +infinitive	6	0,13	<i>vil</i> +infinitive	6	0,10
<i>kommer til å</i>	4	0,09	<i>blir</i>	2	0,03

In terms of correspondences, the obvious tendency here is the dominance of *skal*, which is in contrast to the results for *will* and *ll*.

As we have seen, in the descriptive literature distinctions between *will* and *shall* have been drawn based on both syntactic, semantic and stylistic considerations. The traditional claim has been that both words can express two distinct meanings, one of ‘intention’ and one of ‘prediction’, and that the interpretation depends on the type of subject they combine with (Pinker 2007:196). Leech (1987:87-88), on the other hand, argues that the differences are mainly stylistic. At the same time, he maintains that *shall*, both in its ‘prediction’-sense and its ‘intention’-sense is restricted to first person subjects, with the exceptions of certain marginal uses such as threats, rules and regulations and granting favours (Leech 1987:88).

As a way checking the importance of subject-type with the various English expressions, I searched each construction with respect to type of subject, using the filter ‘and -1 x’, replacing x for each of the personal pronouns *I*, *we*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*. As with the original search, I only used the ‘fiction’-segment of the ENPC. Obviously, this search includes only a small proportion of the relevant instances in table 1: Firstly, pronouns could be placed in other positions than the one immediately preceding the verb phrase. Secondly, subjects, and especially third person subjects, are often realised in other ways than by using personal pronouns. Still, the results should give some indications about what types of subject the various constructions typically collocate with. Since variation between singular and plural forms did not seem to make any difference in the results, I will here give the distribution according to person.

Table 7. Collocation with subject-types for English expressions

	1 st person	2 nd person	3 rd person	total
<i>Will</i>	46 (37%)	36 (29%)	44 (34%)	126
<i>'ll</i>	253 (57%)	95 (22%)	93 (21%)	441
<i>Shall</i>	25 (93%)	0	2 (7%)	27
BE+going to	95 (49%)	33 (17%)	67 (34%)	195

Regarding Leech's claim (1987:87) that *shall* is usually restricted to first-person subjects, the results are very convincing: while 70 instances were found where *shall* combined with *I* or *we*, none were found where *shall* combined with *you*. In the two cases where it occurred with 3rd person pronouns, it was with the marked style of elevated, prophetic language:

- 59) And they shall burn thine houses with fire, and execute judgments upon thee in the sight of many women; and I will cause thee to cease from playing harlot, and thou also shalt give no hire anymore..." (ENPC:SG1)

For the other English expressions there does not seem to be any distributional restrictions related to subject-type.

With regard to semantic meaning in relation to subject-type, it has been argued that *will* in combination with first-person subjects has a meaning of intent rather than prediction, and that in the same contexts *shall* express prediction rather than intention (Pinker 2007:196). But this contradicts with several instances found in the original texts, such as the following example involving *will*:

- 60) "When we 've got the place cleaned up, we **will** be just like everyone else in the street and after a bit no one will notice us. (ENPC:DL2)

"Når vi har fått ordnet opp her, så er det ingen forskjell mer på oss og andre folk i denne gaten, og når det har gått en stund, så kommer ingen til å legge merke til oss mer. (ENPC:DL2T)

Moreover, I encountered instances of *shall* in combination with first person subjects that clearly involved intent rather than mere prediction:

61) "Be sure that I **shall** do my very best, my dear old friend," said he, and his leave-taking of Hamish was in his most gracious style. (ENPC:RDA1)

"Vær sikker på at jeg skal gjøre mitt beste, kjære, gamle venn," sa han, og han tok farvel med Hamish med utsøkt elskverdighet. (ENPC:RDA1T)

This is in line with Leech's claim that both predictions and intentions can be expressed by *shall* in combination with first-person subjects.

These findings do not, however, mean that subject-type is of no consequence for the interpretation of sentences involving *will* or *shall*. The fact remains that we have very little knowledge about other people's intention compared to those of our own, and that we only indirectly can control the behaviour of others. Thus, a reasonable assumption would be that volitional meanings are much more frequent with first-person than with second and third-person in declarative clauses. And, for the same reasons, the converse should be true about interrogative clauses. In relation to obligation and judgements about probability, however, subject type does not seem important.

To check whether, as e.g. Leech has argued (Leech 1987:87), *shall* is associated with formal language, I compared the frequencies in fiction and non-fiction:

Table 8. Frequency of 'shall' in fiction v. non-fiction

	Fiction	Non-fiction
<i>Shall</i>	49	671

These numbers are overwhelming, and goes a long way in proving Leech right. *Shall* is much more frequent in non-fictional texts, which are associated with formal language, than in fiction.

Although collocations with subjects-types shows that there are syntactical restrictions to the use of *shall*, the claim that *shall* ‘occurs nowadays only in a few rather restricted linguistic contexts’ (Leech 1987:87) seems to be an overstatement. On the contrary, *shall* seems to be relatively common in non-fictional texts, and even in fiction the form was found to be more frequent than e.g. *will*+progressive infinitive.

By comparing the lists of correspondences for *will*, *’ll* and *shall* several differences are found: Firstly, *vil* has a stronger affinity with *vil* than the other forms. Secondly, the same is true about *shall* in relation to *skal*. Finally, *’ll* has a uniquely strong correspondence with the present tense. In the light of these results, it seems like an overgeneralization to treat them as one and the same form, as is the approach of Leech (1987:57). It should be kept in mind, however that he only does this when dealing with what he calls their ‘future functions’. At the same time he makes a distinction between ‘future meaning’ and ‘modal meaning’, and thereby excludes uses involving volition. If we ignore this distinction, as indeed is the approach taken in this study, the results above show that there are good reasons for treating them as individual expressions. In the results for the Norwegian expressions, they will therefore be listed as such.

5.2.5 BE+going to

When searching for this construction, I used the search string ‘going’ and the filter ‘and +1 to’. I also searched for the non-standard forms ‘gonna’ and ‘goin’ to’. This returned 158 relevant hits in the originals and 162 in the translations. The main source of irrelevant hits here was homonymy with the -ing form of the transitive verb *go*:

62) "We 're **going** to London," I said. (DF1)

"Vi skal til London," sa jeg. (DF1T)

Interestingly enough, in this case the sentence has future reference. But rather than being an instance of BE+*going to*, it is more correctly analysed as present progressive. In the Norwegian translation we see that the future reference meaning is preserved by using *skal*. But as Norwegian modals in contexts such as this may appear without a main verb, there is no equivalent to the word *going* (although e.g. *dra* or *reise* might have been inserted).

Table 9. Correlations for BE+going to

orig → trans (158)

trans → orig (138)

	total	%			total	%	
<i>skal</i> +infinitive	64	0,41		<i>skal</i> +infinitive	96	0,70	
<i>kommer til å</i>	24	0,15		present tense	19	0,14	
<i>har tenkt å</i>	15	0,09		<i>vil</i> +infinitive	6	0,04	
present tense	15	0,09		<i>kommer til å</i>	4	0,03	
<i>vil</i> +infinitive	13	0,08		<i>blir</i>	2	0,01	
<i>blir</i>	11	0,07		<i>får</i>	2	0,01	
<i>kan</i>	5	0,03					
<i>akte å</i>	3	0,02					
<i>må</i>	2	0,01					
<i>får</i>	2	0,01					

The table above shows that *skal* dominates in the correspondences for both directions.

Compared to the results for the other English expressions, it is also interesting to note the high frequency of the construction *har tenkt å* in the correspondences of original texts. This construction appears in contexts where there is a sense of deliberate planning, and another English equivalent would perhaps be ‘intend to’:

63) "We are **going** to give it a rest," announced Harriet.(ENPC:DL1)

"Vi har tenkt å ta det litt med ro," erklærte Harriet.(ENPC:DL1T)

Just as important, perhaps, BE+*going to* is the English that has the lowest frequency of correspondence with *vil*, less than 10% in both directions.

As mentioned earlier, it has been argued that the differences between *will* and BE+*going to* are stylistic rather than semantic (Mair 1997:1537). Again, a comparison of fiction and non-fiction was made to investigate variation between registers:

Table 10. Frequency of BE+ ‘going to’ in fiction v. non-fiction

	Fiction	Non-fiction
<i>going to</i>	267	23

This clearly indicates that stylistic factors play an important role in the use of BE+*going to*. However, this does not obscure the fact that a comparison of the correspondences of *will* and BE+*going to* indicate real semantic differences.

5.3.0 Correlations for Norwegian expressions

5.3.1 *vil+infinitive*

The string 'vil' returned 349 relevant hits in the original texts and 318 in the translations. A great number of the correspondences in the unfiltered results involved the *want*. This word is used in several contexts that are not immediately relevant to a discussion about future reference. Following the criterion that only structures that allow for an interpretation of 'intention' are relevant, I excluded all instances where *want* was complemented by a noun phrase:

- 76) Vil du ha den siste fiskekaken?"(ENPC:LSC1)
Do you want the last fish cake?" (ENPC:LSC1T)

I also excluded instances of *want* that were complemented by an infinitive phrase headed by a subject.

Another source of irrelevant hits was that *vil* was frequently found to combine with the verb *si*, forming a fixed expression often corresponding with 'that is' or the verb *mean*:

- 77) Hun har vært borte en stund, det vil si, jeg har ikke sett henne på en stund.(ENPC:KF1)
She 's been away for a while — that is, I haven't seen her for some time.(ENPC:KF1T)

In the results in table 12, the correspondences *would*, *would like to* and *would rather* also includes instances of the abbreviated form '*d*'.

Table 12. Correlations for *vil*+infinitive

orig → trans (349)

trans → orig (318)

	total	%			total	%
<i>will</i> +infinitive	97	0,28		<i>will</i> +infinitive	107	0,34
<i>want to</i>	90	0,26		<i>want to</i>	66	0,21
<i>ll</i> +infinitive	46	0,13		<i>ll</i> +infinitive	46	0,14
<i>would like</i>	26	0,07		<i>would</i>	30	0,09
<i>would like</i>	12	0,03		BE+ <i>going to</i>	13	0,04
<i>would rather</i>	10	0,03		<i>would like</i>	14	0,04
<i>can</i>	8	0,02		<i>will/ll</i> +prog.inf.	8	0,03
<i>shall</i>	6	0,02		simple present	6	0,02
BE+ <i>going to</i>	6	0,02		<i>shall</i>	6	0,02
<i>refuse</i>	6	0,02		<i>would rather</i>	5	0,02
<i>try to</i>	6	0,02		<i>present prog.</i>	5	0,02
<i>wish</i>	4	0,01		<i>prefer</i>	2	0,01
simple present	3	0,01		<i>may</i>	3	0,01
<i>must</i>	2	0,01		<i>could</i>	3	0,01
<i>should</i>	2	0,01		BE+ <i>to</i>	3	0,01
<i>may</i>	2	0,01		<i>might</i>	3	0,01

The correlations for *vil*+infinitive show a fairly consistent pattern in both ordering and frequency, where *will*, *want to* and *ll* dominates. Compared to the other Norwegian constructions, the frequency of the construction *want to* is particularly interesting: although an expression of rather strong desire, it does not imply intention: its meaning seem to focus entirely on the subject's present desire to act in a certain manner, ignoring entirely the prospects of future fulfilment. As a result, *want to* may or may not involve a decision to act accordingly. This can be illustrated by the fact that *want to*, just as Norwegian *vil*, can be used in sentences where the willingness of the speaker is contrasted with conflicting obligations:

78) I want to come, but I can't

Eg vil gjerne kome, men eg kan ikkje

By contrast, *will* cannot be used in such contexts. The reason is that *will* is restricted to contexts where the subject not only is willing to act in a certain way, but in addition has the intention of doing so:

79) *I will come, but I can't

By inserting replacing *will* with *'ll*, *shall* or BE+*going to*, we find that the same is true for all the English expressions included here.

Further down the list, there are several uses of the word *would*. According to Biber et al. (2005:181), the difference in meaning between *will* and *would* is not always clear, as both can express both volition and prediction. However, one important difference is that the meaning of *would*, either for volition or prediction, often is hypothetical (Biber et al. 2005:182). This fact seems to be utilised in expressions such as *would like* and *would rather*: *would like* is often used to express one's desire for a hypothetical situation to come about:

80) "I 'd like to see Mr Zablonsky. (ENPC:FF1)

"Jeg vil gjerne snakke med Mr. Zablonsky. (ENPC:FF1T)

Would rather, on the other hand, is used as a way of expressing that the hypothetical situation referred to is more desirable than some other situation (e.g. the reality):

81) Men de vil heller leve på oss andre enn å løfte en finger selv." (ENPC:FW1T)

But they 'd rather live off the rest of us than lift a finger for themselves."(ENPC:FW1)

Due to the hypothetical meaning, these uses of *would* represent a very tentative reference to the future. Rather than expressing an outright intention of acting in a specific way, *would* seems to merely reveal the inclination to do so if the conditions allow for it. This tentativeness is a quality *would* shares with several of the other 'past tense' modals, e.g. *could* and *might*, often are used as a tentative alternative to their 'present tense' form (Biber et al.

2005:179) (The quotation marks are used because, according to Biber et al. (1999:483), modality and tense are mutually exclusive in English verb phrases).

As we have seen, the extrinsic use of *vil* has been claimed to be more common in written, formal language than in conversation (Golden et al. 2008:216). To check this, I searched for *vil* in both fictional and non-fictional texts:

Table 13. Frequency of 'vil' in fiction v. non-fiction

	Fiction	Non-fiction
<i>vil</i>	556	531

The result, however does not lend any support to this claim. There seem to be no significant variation in the use of *vil* between registers. This does not prove Golden et al. wrong, however: It might be the case that there is stylistic variation in the use of the extrinsic meaning of *vil*, while the frequency of its intrinsic, volition-use is the same across registers – or even varies in the converse manner.

5.3.2 *skal+infinitive*

The search 'skal' returned 879 hits in the original Norwegian texts. Nearly 400 hundred of them, however, were irrelevant for this study. The reason is that the verb *skal* has a range of different meanings and uses besides expression of future time, the instances of which have been excluded from the results. One of them is that *shall* in some contexts has a similar distribution as the infinitive marker *to* in English:

64) Jeg forlanger ikke at mine omgivelser skal forme seg etter mine ønsker. (ENPC:KF1)

I do n't expect my surroundings to reflect my heart's desire. (ENPC:KF1T)

This perhaps reflects a deeper relation between auxiliaries and infinitival *to*: As Radford (2004:51) points out, there are significant syntactic similarities between these categories, e.g. in sentences like

65) It's vital that John *should* show an interest

66) It's vital for John *to* show an interest

where both the modal auxiliary and the infinitival marker is preceded by the subject and followed by a non-finite verb. However, a crucial difference between the two is that auxiliaries are finite, while infinitival *to* is non-finite. And while finite clauses are marked for either tense or modality (Biber et al. 1999: 453), non-finite clauses are not. As a result, the meaning of verb phrases introduced by infinitival *to* with regard to time-deixis is always dependent on the wider, linguistic context. For example, one might argue that the phrase 'skal forme seg etter mine ønsker' carries a kind of future reference here, but this is not the case with the infinitival phrase 'to reflect my heart's desire'. Rather, the future reference is realised by the verb *expect*.

I also encountered irrelevant instances where the meaning of *skal* was very difficult to pin down. When combined with the preposition *til* to form a phrasal verb, for example, it is often translated into 'takes':

- 67) Et par nye sko: Så lite det **skal** til for å imponere henne! (ENPC:KF1)
A pair of new shoes — how little it takes to impress her! (ENPC:KF1T)

Moreover, probably due to its meaning of 'obligation', it often corresponds with imperative forms in English.

- 68) Sånn **skal** aldri dere bli!" (ENPC:LSC2)
Never become like him!"(ENPC:LSC2T)

A number of non-futuristic instances of *skal* was found that corresponded with the English expression *supposed to*, probably due to the fact that *skal* often involves intention:

- 69) "Skal dette være magert?" (ENPC:FC1)
Is this supposed to be lean? (ENPC:FC1T)

Finally, in the correspondences of both *skal*, *vil* and *kommer til å* I encountered numerous instances of the negated form *won't*. Since I decided to treat *will* and *'ll* as separate expressions in this analysis, this represented a problem of classification. The reason is that while *shall* has its own (rare) negated form *shan't*, both *will* and *'ll* has *won't* as their corresponding, negative form. This is proved by the fact that *won't* can have anaphoric reference to clauses involving both *will* and *'ll*, e.g. in conditional phrases or tag questions:

70) "If it is n't true, Harry Harris **will** be sitting at the head of the table, and if it is true, he **wo n't**," she said, (ENPC:FW1)

When Dorothy was told, she was again rather silent, and then said, "Well, you **'ll** need me, **wo n't** you?" (ENPC:DL1)

For this reason, I decided to exclude the negative forms *won't* and *shan't* from the results altogether.

Table 11. Correlations for *skal*+infinitive

orig → trans (481)

trans → orig (307)

	total	%			total	%
<i>will</i> +infinitive	105	0,22		<i>ll</i> +infinitive	94	0,31
BE+ <i>going to</i>	96	0,20		BE+ <i>going to</i>	64	0,21
<i>ll</i> +infinitive	78	0,16		<i>will</i> +infinitive	36	0,12
<i>should</i>	51	0,11		<i>shall</i> +infinitive	25	0,08
<i>shall</i> +infinitive	45	0,09		present prog.	23	0,07
<i>have to</i>	42	0,09		<i>should</i>	15	0,05
present progressive	40	0,08		<i>can</i>	13	0,04
<i>must</i>	33	0,07		BE+ <i>to</i>	8	0,03
<i>can</i>	24	0,05		<i>will</i> /' <i>ll</i> +prog.inf.	6	0,02
BE+ <i>to</i>	16	0,03		<i>let us</i>	4	0,01
BE+ <i>about to</i>	11	0,02		<i>must</i>	3	0,01
<i>want to</i>	7	0,01		BE+ <i>about to</i>	2	0,01
simple present	5	0,01		<i>would</i>	2	0,01
<i>will</i> /' <i>ll</i> +prog. inf.	3	0,01				
<i>ought to</i>	3	0,01				
<i>need to</i>	3	0,01				

Apart from the constructions already described and the modals, *skal* was found to correlate with the construction BE+*to*. Its meaning is described by Leech as being close to the modals *have (got) to* and *ought to*, but in addition to include the ‘the specific idea of “ordering” or “commanding”’ (Leech 1987:102). One example is found in the following sentence:

- 71) "The parasitic Royal Family are to be relocated to an area where they will live ordinary lives amongst ordinary people. (ENPC:ST1)

Snylterne i den kongelige familie skal omplasseres til et sted der de må lære seg a føre en høyst ordinær tilværelse blant høyst ordinære naboer. (ENPC:ST1T)

Regarding the expression *be about to*, Leech comments that ‘this construction refers to the immediate future, and is thus sometimes a near equivalent to the *be going to* or the Present Progressive’ (Leech 1987:70). This sense of immediacy was clearly present in the instances of *be about to* I encountered here, exemplified by the following example:

- 72) The bell rings as he 's about to write a letter back, and then it 's too late.(ENPC:LSC1T)

Det ringer ut når han skal skrive et brev tilbake og da er det for seint. (ENPC:LSC1)

Comparing the two directions of translation, no clear pattern emerges in the ordering of the correspondences other than that BE+*going to*, *will* and *'ll* make up the three most common correspondences in both directions. In comparison with the results of the other Norwegian constructions, however, there are certain modal auxiliaries that are strongly represented. The most frequent of these is *should*:

- 73) "Bare når du føler forakt og avsky skal du se en annen vei, men bøy aldri hodet. (ENPC:SH1)

"Only when you feel scorn and disgust should you look away, but never bow your head. (ENPC:SH1T)

As example 73 shows, the modal *should* usually has a meaning of obligation. In this particular case, it is the speaker who is imposing an obligation on the addressee. *Should* can also have the extrinsic meaning of ‘logical necessity’, but this more frequently found in academic prose (Biber et al. 2005:181).

Similarly, a large number of correspondences including the modals *have to* and *must* were found. Just like *should*, these usually express obligation (Biber et al. 2005:180):

- 74) "Father says we have to get married!" she hurled at him without saying hello. (ENPC:HW2T)
"Han far sei at vi skal giftes!" slynget hun ut, uten å hilse. (ENPC:HW2)

Another distinctive feature with *skal* as compared to *vil* and *kommer til å* is that it frequently corresponds with the present progressive:

- 75) Jeg **skal** ha noen venner her i ettermiddag til musisering og forfriskninger, og i formiddag har jeg en hel by å vise deg. (ENPC:SL1)
I'm expecting some friends here this afternoon for music and refreshments, and this morning there is a whole town for me to show you. (ENPC:SL1T)

In sum, the correlations for *skal*+infinitive agree with the description of this expression by Hagen (2004) and Faarlund et al. (1997) in that they include modals of obligation and expressions that are associated with 'decisions and planned acts'.

5.3.3 *Kommer til å*

When searching for the construction *kommer til å*, I used the search string 'kommer' and the filters 'and +4 til' and 'and +5 å'. The reason for allowing gaps between the words is that, unlike BE+*going to* in English, it can be split up by various clause elements. In the following example, the subject *vi* is placed between *kommer* and *til*:

- 82) Kanskje kommer vi til å ende livet vårt som treller. (ENPC:TTH1)
And he might just end his life as a slave, too. (ENPC:TTH1T)

Table 14. Correlations for 'kommer til å'

orig → trans (30)

trans → orig (107)

	total	%			total	%
//+infinitive	14	0,47		//+infinitive	34	0,32
will+infinitive	6	0,20		will+infinitive	32	0,30
BE+going to	3	0,10		BE+going to	24	0,22
might	2	0,07		will/'ll+prog.inf.	6	0,06
				shall+infinitive	3	0,03
				pres.prog	2	0,02

As the overall numbers in table 1 have already shown, there is a large difference in the frequencies for this construction in original texts and translations. Regarding the variation of individual correspondences, the discrepancy is largest for BE+*going to*. This construction makes up 10% of the correspondences in original texts, but 22% in the translations.

As we have seen, Golden et al. (2008:216) claims that the main function of this expression is to predict future events without involving volition. This is very similar to the description that Leech (1987:68) suggests for *will*+progressive infinitive in English: 'future as a matter of course'. Although there seems to be no strong correlation between these expressions, most of the instances I encountered were in agreement with these descriptions.

83) De to kommer til å dø sammen. (ENPC:KH1)

The two of them were to die together. (ENPC:KH1T)

However, there were sentences that seemed to challenge them, e.g. example 84:

84) Jeg kommer til å sette himmel og jord i bevegelse for å finne den eller de skyldige." (ENPC:THA1)

I 'll move heaven and earth to find who 's guilty." (ENPC:THA1T)

This sentence clearly involves volition, since the speaker makes a statement about his own actions in the future. But if we maintain our assumption that *kommer til å* invariably expresses extrinsic meaning, we might just as well interpret example 83 as a deliberate utilisation of this fact: by making his future actions to seem like inescapable facts, the speaker underscores his determinacy.

Looking at the ordering of the various correspondences, the patterns are fairly similar for the two directions of translation. In both originals and translations *'ll* ranks at the top, followed by BE+*going to*. Thus, compared *vil* and *skal* the only distinguishing characteristic is the strong affinity with *'ll*, which is unique for this expression.

5.4 Discussion of findings

As we have seen, many of the expressions included in this study have several meanings. For most of them the basic distinction is between a personal, intrinsic meaning involving volition and a logical, extrinsic meaning involving judgement of probability. This complicates the interpretation of the results presented here, because in a corpus-based analysis there is no way of testing which meaning an expression has in a given context. Consequently, the results presented here are 'blind' to how specific meanings of the expressions correlates with expressions in the other language. For example, two expressions X and Y may have two meanings each, 1 and 2. If the results reveal strong correlation between X and Y, this can be interpreted in at least four ways: correspondence between X1 and Y1, X1 and Y2, X2 and Y1 or X2 and Y2. Most likely, however, it involves several of them. The problem is that we just don't know: Because both expressions are ambiguous when taken out of their contexts, so is the correlation between them.

One way out of this is to look for sources of unambiguity in the material. If, keeping the symbols above, X has two meanings and Y only one, the correspondence between them only has two possible interpretations: X1 and Y or X2 and Y. By means of introspection, findings the descriptive literature and the nature of future reference in general, however, we should be able to exclude one of them. In our current material there are at least four such 'sources':

Firstly, the use of the present tense is claimed to be the unmarked alternative for future reference in Norway (Vinje 1987:39), meaning that it involves a minimum of modal qualification and is a close approximation to 'pure future'. Thus, the extent to which English expressions correspond with the present tense can be seen as a measure of the degree to which they share this quality. In particular, this sheds light on possible semantic distinctions between *will* and *'ll*, as *'ll* corresponds more often with the present tense in both directions of translation.

Secondly, the results include modals that allow for only one interpretation. For *skal*, this involves *should*, *must* and *have to*, which are modals of obligation. These modals also have an extrinsic meaning of logical necessity, but this interpretation is unlikely for two reasons: *should* and *have to* are rarely used in this way (Biber et al. 2005:180), and *skal* does not seem to have any meanings that are likely to correlate with it. This serves to indicate that *skal* is often used to express obligation regarding future events.

In the results for *vil*, there are many hits for the modal *would*, which expresses a more hypothetical, tentative meaning than *will*. Moreover, *vil* corresponds with *want to*. Although this is usually regarded as a modal as such, it expresses an attitude towards a proposition, namely a desire to act in a certain way, but not necessarily intention. This suggests that the volition-use of *vil* does not imply intention, and that it often involves hypothetical or tentative meaning.

Thirdly, *skal* does not have extrinsic meaning expressing ‘prediction’. It does have extrinsic meaning, but this is a highly specialised use denoting ‘rumour’. This gives objective value to the way *skal* corresponds with the English expressions. For example, we may assume that when *will*, *’ll*, *shall* and BE+*going to* corresponds with *skal*, this involves their volition-meanings rather than the prediction-meanings. Additionally, if we see this in connection with the fact that the intrinsic meaning of *vil* does not imply intention, we can assume that the English expressions usually correspond with *skal* rather than *vil* in contexts involving intention and determination.

Finally, the Norwegian expression *kommer til å* does not seem to have intrinsic meaning, and therefore unambiguously express ‘future as a matter of course’. Thus, when the English expressions correspond with *kommer til å*, this involves their extrinsic rather than their intrinsic meaning. For example, BE+*going to* is only likely to correspond with *kommer til å* when it involves the meaning that Leech describes as ‘future as fulfilment of present cause’. For its other meaning, ‘future as fulfilment of present intention’, *skal* seems the most likely equivalent.

Comparing the systems of future reference in the two languages as represented by the expressions included here, a few observations can be made: In Norwegian, the paradigmatic contrast between the expressions seem to involve important semantic differences. The most fundamental is between *skal* and *kommer til å*, which represent intention and prediction respectively. The only overlap in meaning seems to be between *kommer til å* and the extrinsic

use of *vil*. In English, all the included expressions seem to express both ‘prediction’ and ‘volition’. Although their correlation with Norwegian expressions indicates semantic differences, the most important contrast between the English expressions included here seems to be that they are associated with different levels of formality. In particular, ‘*ll*+infinitive and BE+*going to* are associated with informal, spontaneous discourse, while *shall* is associated with a higher level of formality. In terms of semantic meaning *shall* and BE+*going to* seem to express a stronger sense of intention and determination than *will*, since they correspond more frequently with *skal*. Moreover, ‘*ll* seems to be less marked for volition-meaning than *will*, since it corresponds more often with the unmarked present tense in Norwegian.

6.0 Mutual correspondence

6.1 Introduction

As a way of measuring the degree to which the various expressions correlate with each other across languages, and thereby providing a basis for discussing interlingual equivalence, I will adopt the concept of ‘mutual correspondence’ presented by Altenberg (1999:254). This is a method for measuring ‘mutual correspondence of categories and items’, and is found by using a formula that calculates the frequency with which different expressions are translated into each other, producing a percentage:

$$\frac{(A_t + B_t) \times 100}{A_s + B_s}$$

where A_t and B_t are the compared items as translations of each other, and A_s and B_s are the total number for each item in the source texts. The value will range from 0% (no correspondence) to 100% (full correspondence) (Altenberg 1999:254).

In relation to mutual correspondence, Altenberg also calculates the degree of ‘unidirectional correspondence’ between items. That is, the frequency with which one item is translated into another, in per cent. Thus, by comparing the unidirectional correspondences in both directions, it is possible to reveal ‘translation biases’.

Since the expression *will*+progressive infinitive was found to be very infrequent and therefore producing inconclusive results, I decided not to include it in the mutual correspondence-analysis.

6.2 Results

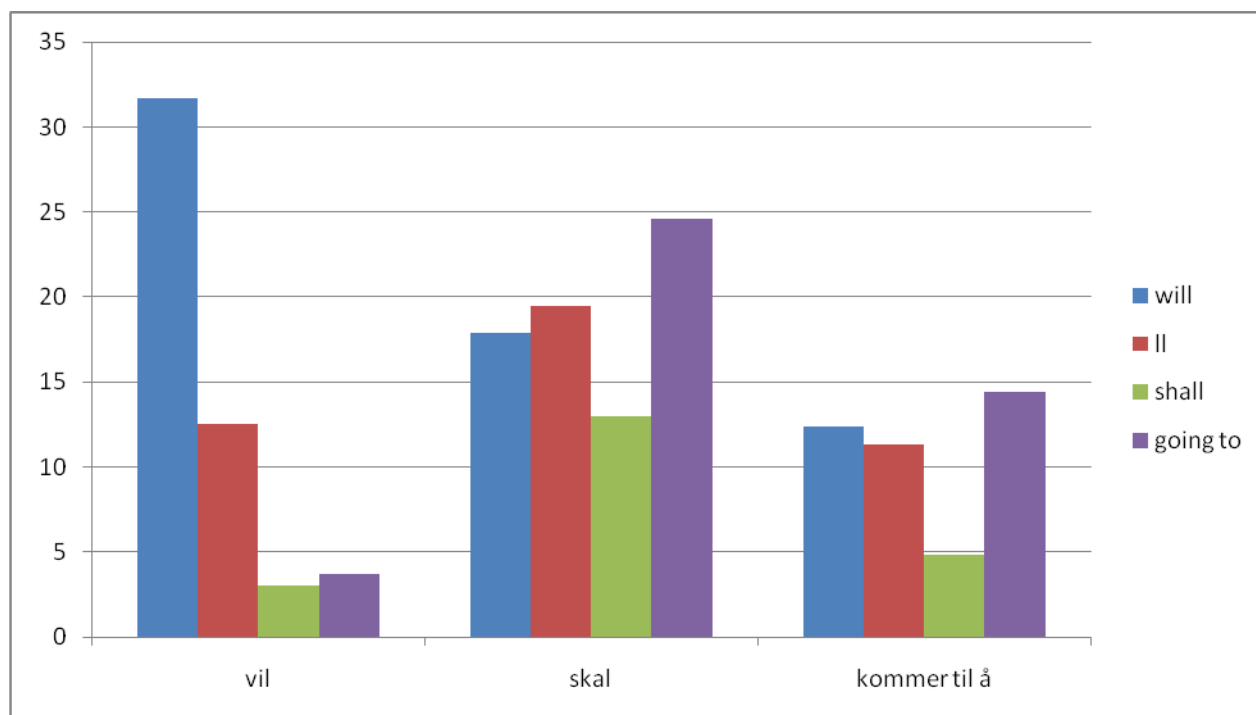
Table 15 includes all the 12 possible correspondence-pairs and their results. The pairs are sorted according to their degree of mutual correspondence (MC). The two rightmost columns show the unidirectional correspondence in both directions: E-N is correspondence from English into Norwegian, and N-E vice versa.

Table 15. Mutual Correspondence

English	Norwegian	MC %	E -> N %	N -> E %
<i>will</i>	<i>vil</i>	31,7	36,4	27,8
BE+going to	<i>skal</i>	24,6	40,5	19,5
<i>'ll</i>	<i>skal</i>	19,5	24,2	15,8
<i>will</i>	<i>skal</i>	17,9	12,2	21,3
BE+going to	<i>kommer til å</i>	14,4	15,2	10,8
<i>shall</i>	<i>skal</i>	13,0	54,3	9,1
<i>'ll</i>	<i>vil</i>	12,5	11,9	13,2
<i>will</i>	<i>kommer til å</i>	12,4	11,9	16,2
<i>'ll</i>	<i>kommer til å</i>	11,3	8,8	37,8
<i>shall</i>	<i>kommer til å</i>	4,8	8,7	0,0
BE+going to	<i>vil</i>	3,7	8,8	1,7
<i>shall</i>	<i>vil</i>	3,0	13,0	1,7

Figure 3 shows the mutual correspondence of the English constructions distributed on the three Norwegian expressions:

Figure 3. A graphical representation of mutual correspondences



6.3 Discussion of findings

The immediate impression emerging from these results is that the level of mutual correspondence between these expressions is generally low. The highest score is for *will* in relation to *vil*, but even here the two expressions are only translated into each other 3 out of 10 times. Another interesting observation is that only one of the possible translations is not found at all, namely the translation from *shall* to *kommer til å*. But since correspondence occurs in the other direction of translation, this is more likely to be because of the relative infrequency of *shall* in fictional texts than complementary distribution. The general impression in the comparison between future reference in English and Norwegian, therefore, is that there are no signs of one-to-one relationships between any of the expressions, and that ‘everything corresponds with everything’.

One possible explanation of this is that the semantic equivalence between English and Norwegian future-referring expressions is weak. Considering the claims in the descriptive literature and the findings presented here so far, there seem to be semantic differences in all

expression-pairs. Not surprisingly, the Norwegian expression that has the highest MC with *will* is the only one sharing both its meaning of ‘prediction’ and ‘volition’.

However, in many respects the expressions are also very similar. As we have seen, the English expressions included here have very similar meanings. Thus, when translating from Norwegian into English there are several, near synonymous alternatives available. Similarly, when translating an expression of ‘prediction’ from English to Norwegian, both *vil* and *kommer til å* are possible. Therefore, the low general level of MC can also be explained as a result of the fact that expressions in many contexts are interchangeable.

Although generally low, the levels of MC still reveal considerable variation, which in turn give clear indications about whether the various expression-pairs are likely translations of each other or not. For reasons already mentioned, *will* in relation to *vil* tops the list, followed by BE+*going to* in relation to *skal*. At the bottom of the list are three expression-pairs with a particularly low MC, all less than 5%. This firstly includes *vil* in relation to *shall* and BE+*going to*. A likely explanation of this is that, as we have seen, the correspondences of both *shall* and BE+*going to* are dominated by *skal*, indicating that they usually have an intrinsic meaning of intention and determination. By comparison, the intrinsic meaning of *vil* does not imply intention (although it sometimes allow for such an interpretation). Secondly, it includes *shall* in relation to *kommer til å*. This lends support to the suggestion that *kommer til å* does not have intrinsic meaning, since such a meaning seems central in the use of *shall*.

As mentioned, because of the linguistic proximity between English and Norwegian there are many forms that share the same etymological origins, and therefore are similar both phonologically and semantically. With regard to future-referring expressions, this includes *will* (*ll*) in relation to *vil*, *skal* in relation to *shall*, and BE+*going to* in relation to *kommer til å*. Between the last two there is similarity on several levels: grammatical similarity, since both expressions include a verb phrase and a preposition; semantic similarity, since the verbs has to do with movement and the prepositions are semantic equivalents; and metaphorical similarity, as both expressions make use of the conceptual metaphor ‘time is space’ - although the former denotes ‘departure’ and the latter ‘arrival’.

However, etymology does not prove to be a reliable source for predicting the level of mutual correspondence. The obvious exception is of course *will* and *vil*, which ranks first in table 15. But if we look at the contracted form *ll*, this has a relatively low level of MC with *vil*, and a much higher MC in relation to *skal*. The second highest MC is found between

BE+*going to* and *skal*, at 24,6%. Thus, despite its many similarities with *kommer til å*, BE+*going to* has a higher MC with *skal*. And for *skal*, the relation to its etymological ‘twin’ *shall* returns the lowest MC of all.

Altenberg (1999:254) uses unidirectional correspondence as a method for revealing ‘translation bias,’ meaning that the degree of correspondence between items is greater in one direction than in the other. One cause for such asymmetry is difference in status: item X may have a different status in language A than Y has in language B (Altenberg 1999:259). This status could include semantic, syntactic and stylistic features. For example, with regard to stylistic considerations, one would expect a translation bias between expression X and Y if X is a very common and unmarked expression and X has a more formal and therefore more restricted. Concerning semantics and syntax, a similar result would be expected if Y is has a narrower meaning and/or has a more restricted distribution with regard to syntactic context than X. One example including all of these differences is the correspondence between *shall* and *skal*, which has the largest translation bias in the analysis (a gap of 45%). As we know, these are partly equivalent in that both have an intrinsic meaning of volition, implying intention. But as the gap between their overall frequencies reveal, *skal* has a more central status in the Norwegian future-referring system than *shall* has in the English. This, and hence the translation bias, can be explained as a combination of stylistic, syntactic and semantic differences: Firstly, we know that *shall* is marked for a high level of formality, since it is much more frequent in non-fictional than in fictional texts. Secondly, *shall* is usually restricted to first-person subjects. And finally, *skal* frequently occurs with a meaning of personal obligation, a meaning not shared by *shall*. As a result, *shall* is marginal as a translation of *skal* (9%), while *skal* makes up 54% of translations of *shall*.

Another way of explaining translation bias is as interference between the two languages in the translation process. According to Elsness (2000:34), this happens when translators are ‘influenced by the forms occurring in the source text to make different choices from those they would otherwise make in composing texts in the target language.’ A very likely source of such influence in the current material is the etymological, phonological and grammatical similarities mentioned above. The clearest candidate for this phenomena is the translation bias between BE+*going to* and *kommer til å*, with a correspondence of 15,2% in the E-N direction and 10,8% in the N-E direction. Even though the gap is considerably smaller than in the case of *shall/skal*, the result is interesting because in this case the difference in status fails to predict the translation bias: The overall numbers show that

BE+*going to* has a more central position in English than *kommer til å* has in Norwegian. Moreover, we know that the Norwegian has a narrower semantic meaning than the English one. Even so, BE+*going to* has a larger unidirectional correspondence with *kommer til å* than the other way around. A possible explanation is that the translators, when translating English texts into Norwegian, overestimate the status of *kommer til å* because of its similarities with BE+*going to*, which has a central status in the English system of future reference. This is also supported by the relative over-use of *kommer til å* in translated texts, suggesting that this may amount to a systematic difference between original Norwegian texts and translations from English.

7.0 Concluding remarks

Because of the interrelatedness of future reference and modality, and the ambiguity and semantic vagueness involved, the study of future-referring expressions is a very complex task. I have therefore found it necessary to devote much space to theoretical and philosophical background. The study has been a very rewarding experience, as the path of modality leads to questions that lie at the very centre of human cognition – and back to ordinary, everyday situations.

This study excludes several of the most common future-referring expressions in English and Norwegian, it does therefore not amount to an exhaustive analysis of the systems for future reference in these languages. In particular, further investigation is needed of the correlations for the future-referring present tense in Norwegian and the future-referring present progressive in English. These are interesting because these represent constructions that do not exist or cannot be used in the same manner in the other language. Moreover, a more substantial material is needed in order to reach any conclusions on the use and meaning of *will*+progressive infinitive.

Still, the results presented here shed light on both the internal structure of future reference Norwegian and English and the interlingual equivalence between future-referring expressions by allowing for several conclusions. First of all, the unifying characteristic of future-referring expressions in both languages is that they can be analysed as an expression of either intrinsic or extrinsic modality, involving volition or judgement of probability. Within this framework, approximations to an unmarked, ‘pure future’ can be analysed as expressions of ‘high probability’.

The Norwegian expressions *vil*+infinitive, *skal*+infinitive and *kommer til å* represent distinctive semantic contrasts, as *skal* usually only has intrinsic meaning, *kommer til å* only has extrinsic meaning, and the intrinsic meanings of *vil* and *skal* differs in that *skal* implies intention while *vil* does not. Such contrasts do not exist between the English expressions included here, as all seem to have both an extrinsic meaning of ‘prediction’ and a volition-meaning implying intention. However, these contrast with each other in that they are marked for different levels of modality. In particular, *shall* is marked as formal while BE+*going to* and *’ll* are associated with informal, colloquial language.

In terms of interlingual equivalence, etymological and phonological proximity fail to predict mutual correspondence. On the contrary, some of the pairs that are similar in this

respect have a relatively low level of mutual correspondence, while e.g. the correlation between BE+*going to*-*skal* is relatively strong. Instead of formal similarities, equivalence seems to depend on and the status of the individual expressions in their respective language with regard to semantic meaning, syntactical restrictions and stylistic considerations. Particularly, the results for *kommer til å* sound a warning to translators and language learners that this expression tends to be overused in translations because of its formal similarities with BE+*going to*.

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